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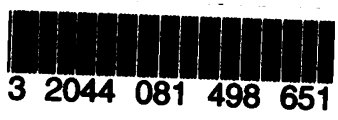
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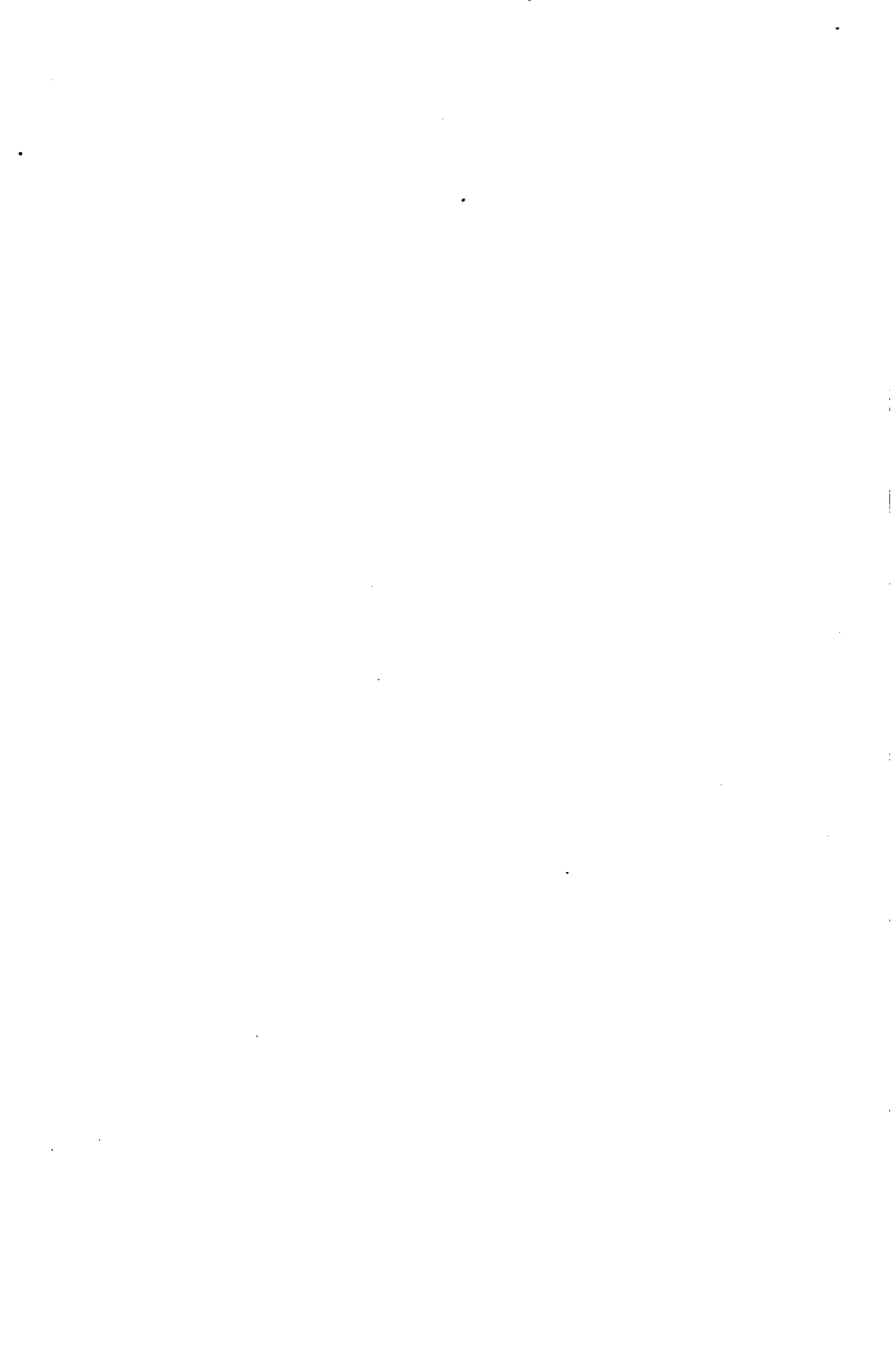
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GATE TO ENGLISH

BOOK II

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PREFACE

WE covet for ourselves and for our children the habit of clear and correct English. In the two books of the *Gate to English* we have followed the boy and girl through the years while their observation and experience are widening, and we have tried to direct them in habits which will make their work easy and effective. If young pupils are to have a firm control over their oral and written speech, they must have a clear and distinct knowledge of the essential facts of language. Few children, if any, merely grow into a mastery of good and effective English. There must be a long, painstaking training based upon a knowledge of the correct forms. We do not believe that definitions and technical drill should be required merely as so much to be learned, but we are persuaded that cultivation in English must proceed from certain accurate knowledge which is to be got by strict discipline. This has been our purpose and our plan in the preparation of these books.

Book I has been made as simple and concise as possible, unclogged by technical or useless rules and definitions. It has been made accurate without sacrificing clearness and simplicity. The examples and exercises have been chosen and prepared to fit the experience and comprehension of the pupil. In this book the specific aim has been to train the pupil in the elements of oral and written expression, — the parts of a sentence, the parts of speech and the other simple forms of grammar. This training is to lead to the one aim of the two books — the act of composition whether in oral or written speech.

Book II attempts to lead the pupil a little farther into a knowledge of English and into a firmer control of his own speech and a clearer insight into the world about him. After all this is the goal of expression, the better to know one's self. As his horizon is enlarged, if we can help the pupil to see things more as they are, help him on the right road to self-mastery, help him despise the slovenly or vulgar word, help him cherish and cultivate the precise or accurate expression, we shall have done real service. In this book we have included a review of the elements of grammar as an introduction to the more important part of the book, special training in all kinds of composition.

If the books are used, as any text-book should be used, with judgment and enthusiasm, we believe that they will be as their title implies, a real gate to English.

The following are some of the distinguishing features of these books:

1. The parts dealing with grammar follow the logical order by beginning with the grammatical unit — the sentence — and by proceeding to the parts of speech in their relation to the sentence. The lessons are carefully graded with reference to a natural order and difficulty.

2. Explanations and definitions are everywhere enforced by simple and abundant illustrations, taken chiefly from the every-day experiences and interests of children.

3. By excluding complicated distinctions, each exercise is made simple and emphatic, and dwells upon the particular point to be impressed.

4. Special emphasis is laid upon grammatical function and relation rather than upon mere terminology or definition. For instance, the fact that a noun is used as subject

or as object is emphasized rather than the fact that it is in the nominative or accusative case.

5. The terminology used in these books has been recommended by the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature appointed by the National Education Association, the Modern Language Association of America and the American Philological Association.

6. Stress is placed upon the relations in grammar which will help the pupil in his use of correct English. Subtle differentiations which have largely a disciplinary value have been carefully excluded.

7. The lessons in composition are simple and practical. Because they are designed to give proper training in everyday speech and every-day writing, they are based on topics which have a direct connection with the life of children. They do not offer mere directions or restrictions but provide helpful suggestions and ample practice.

8. The illustrative material in the composition lessons has been taken directly from actual work done in the classroom. The letters, the themes and the fac-simile compositions have been written by pupils of grammar school age.

9. The books have been successfully tested in daily practice for two years on several schools of different types.

RESOLUTIONS OF ACCEPTANCE OF THE REPORT OF
THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON GRAMMATICAL
NOMENCLATURE

BY THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

(Salt Lake City, July 10, 1913)

Moved, That the report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature be accepted; that the committee be continued and directed to complete the editing of the report for publication.

That the National Education Association hereby recommends that, as early as practicable, the nomenclature set forth in the report of the joint committee be employed in the schools of the United States.

BY THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

(Chicago, November 29, 1913)

WHEREAS, A joint committee of the National Education Association, the Modern Language Association of America, and the American Philological Association, assisted by a committee of the National Council of Teachers of English, has worked with untiring diligence through numerous long sessions on the preparation of a report on uniform grammatical terminology, and

WHEREAS, The list of terms adopted is on the whole a good working basis for the selection of what the various grades in the various schools need in the way of grammatical terminology, be it hereby

Resolved, That the National Council of Teachers of English cordially indorse in general the report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature and recommend its use in the schools of the United States.

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PART I

GRAMMAR

The study of grammar helps us to form good sentences and to use words correctly. If we understand how words are related to each other in sentences, and how certain words are changed in form to show special relations and meanings, we shall have little difficulty in making our talk or writing clear to others.

The person who is not acquainted with the correct forms of words, is likely to make mistakes similar to those shown in the following sentences:

Fred was *drowned* (for) Fred was drowned.

This book *ain't his'n* (for) This book isn't his.

I *wisht* I could go (for) I wish I could go.

One who does not understand the relations which words bear to each other in sentences is likely to make mistakes such as are shown in the following:

{ *Those* kind of apples are too sour (for)

{ *That* kind of apples is too sour.

{ There *was* two or three boys in the boat (for)

{ There *were* two or three boys in the boat.

{ *Him* and *me* are the best of friends (for)

{ *He* and *I* are the best of friends.

Grammar is the study which teaches the correct forms of words and the relations which they bear to each other in sentences.

CHAPTER I

THE SENTENCE

We generally tell our thoughts in groups of words called *sentences*. In order to express a thought fully, we use a group of related words which makes complete sense. Such a group we call a *sentence*; as,

David received a pretty valentine.

The Spaniards were at last defeated.

Dickens wrote "David Copperfield."

Each of these groups is a sentence, because it expresses a complete thought.

Unless a group of words expresses a complete thought, it cannot be called a sentence, even though the words in the group are closely related.

The following groups are not sentences, because they do not express complete thoughts.

To love thy neighbor as thyself.

Far from the haunts of men.

Never too late to mend.

A sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought.

Sometimes we use only one word to take the place of the sentence. We say, for example, "Come," meaning, "You come"; or we say, in answer to a question, "Certainly," meaning, "I agree with you."

EXERCISE

Copy from the following list the groups of words which make complete sense. What do you call each group which you have copied? Read aloud, in class, the groups which you have not copied, and tell why each is not a sentence.

1. In answer to your question about the flowers.
2. I cannot answer your question about the flowers.
3. The snow had begun on Christmas Day.
4. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.
5. When the clock gave the signal for retiring.
6. Into the street the piper stépped.
7. Following the piper down the street.
8. The snow fell on the meadow, and drifted over the hedge.
9. How does the oriole build her nest?
10. Where the stream wanders through pleasant meadows.

1. The Declarative and the Interrogative Sentence

If we wish to declare a fact about some person or thing, or if we wish some person or animal to do something, we use a sentence to *declare* the fact or intention which we have in mind. If we are seeking information about a person or thing, we ask a *question*. Since sentences are used with different purposes, we give them different names to show their special uses.

Each of the following sentences declares either a *fact* or the *will* of one person toward another; hence each is called a *declarative sentence*.

- | | | |
|----------------|---|---|
| Facts declared | { | The hunter killed the deer. |
| | | Our boys played a fast game. |
| | | Three wives sat up in the lighthouse tower. |
| | | Then came the tapping of the maple trees. |

Will of one per- son toward an- other declared	{	Tell the class about the picnic.
		Do not tell a falsehood.
		Please complete your exercise before recess.
		Come to the basket-ball game at four o'clock.

Each of the following sentences asks a question; hence we call each an *interrogative sentence*.

Father, who makes the snow?

When shall you arrive?

Who invented the airship?

Who painted the picture?

A declarative sentence states or declares a fact, or a person's will or intention.

An interrogative sentence asks a question.

All sentences either tell or ask something.

The period (.) is used at the end of declarative sentences.

The question mark (?) is used at the end of interrogative sentences.

2. The Exclamatory Sentence

When we make a statement, or ask a question, or give a command in such a way as to show uncontrolled or excited feeling, we exclaim our thought instead of expressing it in the usual manner. A sentence which exclaims thought is called an *exclamatory sentence*. It is always declarative or interrogative in use and exclamatory in feeling.

O, I wish I were a mile away! (Declarative in use.)

Who will dare to go! (Interrogative in use.)

On! Stanley, on! (Declarative in use.)

Run for your life! (Declarative in use.)

All sentences are either declarative or interrogative sentences.

All sentences are either exclamatory or non-exclamatory sentences.

TO THE TEACHER. It should be made clear to pupils that the exclamatory sentence is in no sense opposed to the declarative and the interrogative sentences. Thus a sentence may be *declarative exclamatory*, *declarative non-exclamatory*, *interrogative exclamatory*, or *interrogative non-exclamatory*.

All sentences which are exclamatory in feeling should close with the exclamation point (!).

EXERCISE

I. Copy the following sentences, placing each under the heading Declarative or Interrogative. Underline the sentences which are exclamatory. Explain the punctuation mark at the close of each sentence.

1. I wandered lonely as a cloud.
2. If such there breathe, go mark him well!
3. Would the flowers, and the water, and the sky, be sorry?
4. You sturdy oaks, I'll make you bow!
5. It tossed the colts' manes all over their brows.
6. Do you mean what you say?
7. What is a prefix?
8. Flow gently, sweet Afton, among thy green braes.
9. The awakening of China means progress to the whole world.
10. Do you know the meaning of the word *aviator*?
11. How long it seems from Christmas to Christmas!

II. Write three declarative sentences; three interrogative sentences; write three exclamatory sentences.

3. Review

In what way will the study of grammar help you? Define grammar. What is a sentence? Is every group of related words a sentence? How can you recognize a sentence? Define a declarative sentence. An interrogative sentence. Give three examples of each kind you have defined. When is a sentence called exclamatory? When is it non-exclamatory?

4. The Parts of a Sentence

You cannot express a complete thought without *saying* something about a person or thing. Hence every sentence which you form has at least *two* parts. The part which names the person or thing of which something is said, is called the *subject*. The part which *says* something about the person or thing named in the subject, is called the *predicate*.

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Predicate</i>
Flowers	fade.
Seeds	sprout.
Stars	shine.

In the preceding short sentences, the words *flowers*, *seeds*, and *stars* are *subjects*, because they *name* things of which something is said; the words *fade*, *sprout*, and *shine* are *predicates*, because they *tell* something about the things named.

The subject of a sentence *names* the person or thing of which something is said.

The predicate of a sentence *says* something of the person or thing named by the subject.

EXERCISE

I. Supply subjects which may be used with the following predicates:

— falls.	— mew.	— prance.	— bubbles.
— roars.	— spins.	— shine.	— teach.
— bark.	— flashes.	— glitter.	— learn.

II. Supply predicates for the following subjects:

Winds —	Trees —	Snakes —
Geese —	Branches —	Toads —
Rivers —	Bees —	Carpenters —

5. The Subject Substantive and the Predicate Verb

The special word or group of words which denotes the person or thing talked about in a sentence is called the *subject substantive*. Thus:

An interesting *book* telling of Indian life has been recently published.

The word *book*, in this sentence, names the thing of which something is told. It is the principal word of the enlarged subject, *An interesting book telling of Indian life*, and hence is called the *subject substantive*.

Alice in Wonderland is the title of an interesting story for children.

The group of words, *Alice in Wonderland*, names that of which something is said. Hence it is called the subject substantive of the sentence.

A subject substantive is a word or a group of words used to denote that of which something is said by the predicate.

TO THE TEACHER. Later on, the term "substantive" may well be explained to pupils as any part of a sentence which might, if it were desirable, be used as the subject of a sentence.

The special word or group of words used in the larger predicate, *to tell* or *ask* something about the person or thing named in the subject, is called the *predicate verb* of a sentence.

The beautiful, red-crested bird *flew* from its gilded cage.

The word *flew*, in this sentence, is used to *tell* something about the *bird*, the thing named in the subject. *Flew* is the principal word in the larger predicate, *flew from the cage*. Hence it is called the *predicate verb*.

Jack *has been punished* for his disobedience.

The group of words *has been punished* is used to tell something about Jack, the person named in the subject. *Has been punished* is the principal part of the larger predicate — *has been punished for his disobedience*; hence we may call it the *predicate verb*.

Who *brought* the news from camp?

The word *brought* is used in the predicate to *ask* something about the person denoted by the subject *who*. *Brought* is the principal word of the larger predicate, — *brought the news from camp*. Hence we may call it the *predicate verb*.

A word or group of words used in a predicate to tell or ask something about a person or thing named in a subject, is called a predicate verb.

EXERCISE

Point out in the following sentences the subject substantives and the predicate verbs:

1. An enraged lion in the circus sprang upon his keeper.
2. The old-fashioned gentleman spoke in a quaint manner.
3. The farmer planted his potatoes by the light of the moon.
4. A good citizen votes for good men and good principles.
5. John explained to his class the way in which a letter is carried to its destination.
6. Mr. Armstrong dismissed his errand-boy on a charge of dishonesty.
7. The pupils of our civic league discussed *Good Citizenship among Pupils*.

6. The Complete Subject and the Complete Predicate

The subject substantive of a sentence is frequently used with other words or groups of words called *modifiers*. A subject and its modifiers taken together are called the *complete subject*.

NOTE. A *modifier* is a word or a group of words so used in a sentence as to affect or to change the meaning of some other part of the sentence.

The violent *storm* | HAD PASSED.

In this sentence, the subject substantive, *storm*, has its meaning modified by the words *the* and *violent*. The word *the* affects the meaning of the word *storm* by showing that some particular storm is meant, and the word *violent* adds to its meaning by describing the storm. The subject substantive *storm*, together with its modifiers *the* and *violent*, is called the *complete subject*.

The predicate verb of a sentence is frequently used with modifying words or groups of words. The predicate verb with its modifiers is called the *complete predicate*.

The horse | DASHED wildly down the street.

In this sentence, the predicate verb *dashed* has its meaning modified by the word *wildly*, which tells *how* the horse *dashed*; also by the group of words, *down the street*, which tells *where* the horse *dashed*. The words, *dashed wildly down the street*, are called the *complete predicate*.

The complete subject of a sentence is the subject substantive and its modifiers.

The complete predicate is the predicate verb and its modifiers.

EXERCISE

I. Read aloud the following sentences and omit, as you read, the italicized words:

1. The tiny *lambs were bleating* for their mothers.
2. The white-crested *waves were dashing* high upon the rock-bound coast.
3. The brave *horsemen rode* into the jaws of death.
4. Delicate spring *flowers blossomed* by the roadside.
5. The *ships plowed* through the high waves.

What necessary parts of these sentences did you omit? What effect did their omission have upon the sentences?

Read aloud the italicized words in each of the preceding sentences, leaving out all other words. Do the italicized

words, taken together without the modifying words, make complete sense? What do you call a group of words which makes complete sense?

Every sentence must have a subject and a predicate.

A sentence may consist of a subject substantive and a predicate verb without any modifiers.

Copy the preceding sentences and separate the complete subject from the complete predicate by a vertical line. Draw one line under each subject substantive, and two lines under each predicate verb.

II. *Copy the following sentences. Underscore with one line the word in each sentence which names the person or thing of which something is told or asked. Underscore with two lines the word which tells or asks something about the person or thing named. What do you call each part which you have underscored?*

1. A large, fierce dog barked furiously at us.
2. Three fishermen were sailing out of the sound.
3. The engineer quickly pulled the throttle.
4. The sharp arrow hit the target near the center.
5. The enterprising Germans formed a great land company.
6. The independent spirit of the colonists rebelled against the tyranny of England.
7. The first house on the opposite side belongs to my brother.

III. *Separate, by a vertical line, the complete subject from the complete predicate of each of the preceding sentences. As you do this, ask yourself these questions:*

*What words or groups of words belong to the subject?
What words or groups of words belong to the predicate?*

IV. Copy the following sentences. Draw one straight line under each subject substantive, and two straight lines under each predicate verb. Separate by a vertical line the complete subject from the complete predicate.

Example

The spacious old mansion | stood in the center of a wide lawn.

1. A cry for help came from the burning building.
2. Storms frequently visit this part of the country.
3. Our flag, bright with its stars and stripes, floated in the breeze from the top mast.
4. A sudden echo, shrill and sharp, gave back its doleful sound.
5. The woodpecker wears a crimson tuft.
6. A woodchuck's hole is only a little tunnel with two entrances.
7. The scream of eagles was heard above the roaring of the water.
8. The wind roared through the big trees by the side of the house.

7. The Simple Subject and the Compound Subject

The subject substantive of a sentence generally consists of a word, or a group of words used to denote a single person or thing. A subject of this kind is called a *simple subject*.

David | FELL asleep by the roadside.

John Hill | IS a loyal patriot.

The *Queen* of England | HATED Mary Queen of Scots.

The expressions *David*, *John Hill*, and *The Queen of England* are *simple subjects*, because they are used as *single names*.

Often, however, a subject consists of two or more separate names used with the same predicate. Such a subject is called a *compound subject*.

Harold and Eugene | ARE brothers.

Neither corn nor wheat | WAS GROWN there.

Tom Sawyer and Huckleberry Finn | HAD many adventures.

Each subject in the sentences above is a *compound subject*, because it consists of two or more separate names used with the same predicate.

EXERCISE

I. Which of the subjects in the following sentences are *simple subjects*? Which are *compound*? Why?

1. John Brown was hanged.
2. Minneapolis and St. Paul are twin cities.
3. Both sugar and spices are imported.
4. The tiger and the panther belong to the cat family.
5. Fritz, Ernest, and I began to unload the raft.
6. The frozen pond made a good place for skating.
7. Apples, peaches, and strawberries have been planted in our orchard.
8. *Ivanhoe* and *The Talisman* are my favorite novels.
9. Neither temperance nor cleanliness was practiced by the natives.

II. Supply *compound subjects* for the following *predicates*:

1. —, —, and — | were in the garden gathering flowers.

2. — and — | are raised in abundance in Dakota.
3. —, —, and — | were taken on our picnic.
4. The — and — | were destroyed by fire.
5. —, —, and — | were great statesmen of America.

8. The Simple Predicate and the Compound Predicate

A predicate verb, like a subject substantive, may consist of a word or a group of words used to tell or ask a single thing about the person or thing expressed by the subject. Such a predicate is called a *simple predicate*.

Fish | SWIM.

The *red-birds* | HAVE COME from the South.

The *battleships* | WILL HAVE ARRIVED before the celebration is begun.

The predicate verbs in these sentences are simple predicates, because they tell but one thing about (1) the *fish*, (2) the *red-birds*, and (3) the *battleships*.

Frequently two or more separate words or groups of words are used to tell or ask two or more things about the same subject. Such a predicate is called a *compound predicate*.

The *pupils* | LAUGHED AND CHATTERED on their way to school.

The *hunter* | HAD SHOT AND WOUNDED the deer.

The predicates in the sentences above are *compound predicates*, because each predicate tells two separate things about the same subject.

1. NOTE. A sentence may contain both a compound subject and a compound predicate; as,

Robert and Donald | PLAY AND SING well.

2. **NOTE.** Remember that a *compound subject* is always *one* subject, and that a *compound predicate* is always *one* predicate, though each consists of two or more parts.

EXERCISE

I. *Tell which of the predicates in the following sentences are compound and which are simple:*

1. Pedro barked and growled at the tramp.
2. The water had risen rapidly and had overflowed its banks.
3. The Chinese had been engaged in war a long time.
4. Joan of Arc neither feared her enemies nor hated them.
5. John was often mistreated by his brother James.
6. The frightened steed plunged and reared.
7. The house and the barn were struck by lightning and were destroyed.

II. *Supply compound predicates for the following simple subjects:*

1. The spirited horse — and — to the martial music of the band.
2. The wind — and — around the house all night.
3. The merry-makers — and — until midnight.
4. The tower — and — to the ground.
5. We — and — for rain, but it did not come.
6. The icicles — and — in the moonlight.
7. The soldiers — and — for their country.

A compound subject consists of two or more separate names used with the same predicate.

A compound predicate consists of two or more separate predicate verbs used with the same subject.

9. Arrangement of Subject and Predicate

The subject substantive of a sentence generally comes before the predicate verb. When these parts are thus arranged, the sentence is said to be in its *natural order*.

Natural Order

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Predicate</i>
A wonderful gate	OPENED wide.
A stranger, fleeing from justice,	CAME one night to Yussouf's tent.
The Indian	ROSE from his seat.

In interrogative sentences, the predicate verb usually precedes the subject substantive. In declarative sentences, the predicate verb is sometimes placed before the subject substantive in order to give special emphasis to some word in the predicate. When the subject and predicate are thus arranged, the sentence is said to be in *transposed* or *inverted order*.

Transposed Order in Declarative Sentences

<i>Predicate</i>	<i>Subject</i>
OPENED wide	a wonderful gate.
One night there CAME to Yussouf's tent	a stranger, fleeing from justice.
From his seat ROSE	the Indian.

Transposed Order in Interrogative Sentences

<i>Predicate</i>	<i>Subject</i>
Where IS	Martha?
How ARE	you?
Whence CAME	this motley crowd?

NOTE. The preceding interrogative sentences would sound awkward if given in the *natural order*; as, Martha is where? You are how? This motley crowd came whence?

EXERCISE

Copy the following sentences, placing those in which the subject comes first under the heading Natural Order, and those in which the predicate precedes the subject under the heading Transposed Order. Change the transposed sentences to their natural order. Separate the complete subjects from the complete predicates by straight lines. Underline once each subject substantive and twice each predicate verb.

1. The breath seemed gone from his body.
2. The big ship felt the sudden gust of wind.
3. Away went the wind laughing in glee.
4. The alarmed dwellers ran out like a swarm of bees.
5. Who hath not seen thee oft amid thy store?
6. Where are the songs of spring?
7. Flashed all their sabers bare.
8. Into the valley of Death rode the six hundred.
9. Three wrecks lay out on the shining sands.

The subject of a sentence which expresses a direct command or request is generally *you*, *ye*, or *thou* either expressed or understood. The subject *you* is generally omitted. When *thou* and *ye* are used as subjects, they are generally preceded by the predicate.

Take your seats, please.
Open the window. .
Be ye perfect.

10. Review

What are the two main divisions of a sentence called? What is the subject substantive of a sentence? What is the predicate verb? What is the complete subject of a sentence? What is the complete predicate? When is a sentence in its natural order? When is it in transposed order? What kind of sentence is frequently in the transposed order? Why are declarative sentences sometimes written in transposed order? From what kind of sentences is the subject generally omitted?

CHAPTER II

PARTS OF SPEECH

Words have eight different kinds of work to do in sentences; they therefore have been divided into eight classes called *parts of speech*.

The parts of speech are these: (1) *noun*; (2) *pronoun*; (3) *adjective*; (4) *verb*; (5) *adverb*; (6) *preposition*; (7) *conjunction*; (8) *interjection*.

Let us first study the uses of the *noun*.

11. The Noun

A noun is a word used as a name.

Observe the different kinds of names used in the following sentences:

Person and place: *James Harris* lives in *New York*.

Things: The *book* is on the *desk*.

Feelings: The unjust *hatred* aroused my *anger*.

Qualities: The *beauty* of snow comes from its *purity* and *whiteness*.

Conditions: *Heat* and *light* are necessary to *growth*.

Actions: The *dance* and *song* of the Indians are picturesque.

A noun may be used to name any of the following: *a person, a place, a thing, a feeling, a quality, a condition, an action*.

Remember that the thing named is not a noun; the word which names is a noun. For instance, a dog is not a noun, but the word *dog* is a noun because it is the name of a thing.

EXERCISE

I. *Select the nouns used in the following sentences and tell what each one names:*

1. Marie and Irene are studying music in Paris.
2. The lion made a sudden leap into the air.
3. Please remove the dishes from the table.
4. Hatred of evil is a just hatred.
5. His honesty and uprightness made many friends for him.
6. The camel has great strength and endurance.
7. The natives cannot endure much cold.
8. Patience and perseverance must conquer at last.
9. Robinson Crusoe saw the footprints of a man on the sand.

II. *Copy each of the following lists, and complete each one with five other similar nouns:*

1	2	3
Horace Harding	United States	picture
boy	Niagara Falls	river
4	5	6
love	goodness	health
contempt	brightness	wealth
cheerfulness	honesty	warmth

III. *Which of the foregoing lists contain the names of persons? Of feelings? Of things? Of qualities? Of places? Of conditions?*

12. Pronouns

A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.

Arnold was a traitor because *he* betrayed our country.

The word *he* is a pronoun, because it is used instead of the name *Arnold*.

When the *Pilgrims* grew tired of Holland, many of *them* came to America.

The word *them* is a pronoun, because it is used instead of the noun *Pilgrims*.

Henry said that he would give the book to the boy who would most quickly read it.

In this sentence, *he* is used instead of *Henry*, *who* instead of *boy*, *it* instead of *book*.

Without the pronoun, we should be forced to repeat many names, and should frequently have to talk in sentences like the following.

John told Frank (me) that John (he) expected to sell his bicycle, if his father would give John (him) permission.

NOTE. The word *pronoun* is formed from the word *noun*, which means *name*, and the prefix *pro*, which means *instead of*. Hence the word *pronoun* means *instead of a name*.

The following is a list of the pronouns which are most frequently used:

I, mine, me

He, his, him

We, ours, us

She, her, hers

You, yours

It

They, theirs, them

Who, whose, whom

Which, what, that

13. The Antecedent of the Pronoun

The word or words for which a pronoun stands is called its antecedent.

The antecedent of a pronoun is so called because it usually comes before the pronoun. The word *antecedent* means *that which goes before*.

Maurice broke the sled which Tom gave him.

A house divided against itself cannot stand.

The antecedent of a pronoun is frequently not expressed. When this is the case, it should be clearly understood.

He, she, and I received credits in grammar.

The antecedents of the pronouns *he, she, and I* are the names, *understood by the person addressed*, of the person speaking and of those spoken of.

EXERCISE

Make a list of the pronouns used in the following sentences. Write opposite each pronoun in your list the antecedent for which the pronoun stands.

1. Shall I go?
2. Edna, where are you?
3. Chester swung the bat with skill, as he always does.
4. The Indians have been driven from the lands which they own.
5. I, John Doan, solemnly affirm that this is the truth.

6. Mary, who was deeply moved by the boy's story, offered to aid him.

7. Anybody who wishes to come must purchase his ticket in advance.

8. Tell me the story again.

14. Adjectives

An adjective is a word used to point out, number, or describe some person or thing.

This shady nook is delightful.

Five birds are in the nest.

The person or thing pointed out, numbered, or described by the adjective is always denoted by some noun or pronoun. Hence an adjective always *modifies the meaning of a noun or a pronoun*.

The word *modify* means *have some effect upon*. Any word which is so used in a sentence as to affect or change the meaning of any other part of the sentence, is called a *modifier*.

That house is mine.

The word *that* is an adjective, because it modifies the meaning of the noun *house* by telling which house is meant.

Our home was destroyed by fire.

The word *our* is an adjective, because it modifies the meaning of the noun *home* by telling whose home is meant.

A *crimson* rose was in the vase.

The word *crimson* is an adjective, because it modifies the meaning of the noun *rose* by describing the rose itself.

EXERCISE

I. *Copy the following nouns and place before each one some adjective which will describe the person or thing named by the noun :*

monkey	man	dream	mountain
scene	day	anger	teeth
action	weather	illness	face

II. *Copy the following nouns and place before each an adjective which will point out, or number, without describing, the person or thing named.*

stream	gentlemen	boy
books	memories	apples
tower	speaker	fish

III. *Make two lists of the adjectives used in the following sentences. Place in one list the adjectives which modify nouns by describing the objects named. Place in the other list the adjectives which point out or number the objects named.*

NOTE. Adjectives which *point out* usually do so by telling *which* or *what one*, or *whose*. Adjectives which *number* tell *how many*, *how much*, or *what order*.

1. Neither boy was guilty.
2. Please read the fourth section on the next page.
3. The climate of Arizona is dry and bracing.
4. This long, winding road led us through a beautiful wood.
5. Yonder little cabin was built by a brave pioneer.
6. Those four small trees at the end of the orchard will bear delicious peaches next year.
7. By a brave effort he suppressed this bitter feeling and spoke in a quiet voice.

15. Verbs

A verb is a word used to assert, to ask, or to command.

Washington *crossed* the Delaware.

The word *crossed* is a verb, because it *asserts* something about *Washington*.

Do you hope to go unharmed?

In this sentence the verb is used to ask a question.

Surrender at once.

In this sentence the verb is used to give a command.

Many verbs express *action*; others express *feeling*, *being*, *state*, etc.

(Verbs of Action)

The horses *rushed* down the street.

The cart *was pushed* by an Italian.

(Verbs of Feeling)

We *admire* Thomas Edison.

Tom *respects* his father.

(Verbs of Being)

I *am* the king.

The Roman Empire *was*, but *is* no more.

(Verbs of State)

Sleep on, fair child.

We *rested* under a large elm tree.

The following words are commonly used as verbs of being, or as parts of verb phrases: *is, are, am, be, was, were, has been, have been, had been*.

EXERCISE

I. *Write five sentences containing verbs which assert what some person or thing does, or thinks, or feels, or is.*

Write three sentences containing verbs which tell what was done to some person or thing.

II. *Write a list of the verbs used in the following sentences:*

1. A tiny stream trickled down the mountainside.
2. The lighthouse stands on a small knoll close to the shore.
3. Are you happy in your new surroundings?
4. Be brave, and have no fear.
5. The prisoners filed into the dining-room.
6. On came the avalanche, faster and faster.
7. The fire-engine rattled down the street.
8. Winter had passed; summer had come.
9. Every one admires and respects the hero.
10. Stones of tremendous size were hurled against the fortifications.
11. The firemen rushed up the ladder, dashed into the room, seized the child, and hastily descended to the street below.

III. *Write a list of the verbs used in the following paragraph. Place before each verb its subject.*

At first the Norwegians looked on in wonder; then they sang gaily that they might drown the weird sounds. After a while they were filled with alarm, and they hurriedly crossed themselves, and retired to the cabin. The crew of the phantom ship, when they saw this, laughed like demons. Then the ghastly flame died away, and the stormy rumblings ceased, and silence reigned once more.

16. Verb Phrases

A predicate verb may consist of more than a single word; as, *had passed; were hurled; might drown; were filled; had been elected; shall have been punished*. Such groups are called *verb phrases*. Note the verb phrases in the paragraph about the Norwegians.

NOTE. The parts of a verb phrase are frequently separated by other words; as,

The comet *was clearly seen*.

Where *have you been walking* this morning?

EXERCISE

Point out the verb phrases in the following sentences:

John has been promoted.

Frank was writing his lesson.

A severe storm had arisen.

The house was blown down.

The children are playing a game of croquet.

The engine is swaying on its track.

17. Adverbs

An adverb is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

Adverbs are commonly used to tell *how, when, where, why, in what degree* and *how much* or *how little*.

NOTE. Remember that *modify* means *have some effect upon something*.

We stood *there*, waiting for the train.

The word *there* is an adverb, because it modifies the meaning of the verb *stood* by telling *where* we stood.

The walls were hung with *very* beautiful pictures.

The word *very* is an adverb, because it modifies the meaning of the adjective *beautiful* by telling *how* beautiful the pictures were.

Helen sang *exceedingly* well.

The word *exceedingly* is an adverb, because it modifies the meaning of another adverb *well* by telling *how* well.

EXERCISE

I. *The words in each of the following groups are often used as adverbs. What question would the words in each list answer — when, where, how, why, how often, how much or how little?*

1. { rapidly, sweetly, softly, smoothly, well, pleasantly,
cheerfully, low, violently, fast, together
2. { there, here, nowhere, somewhere, anywhere, now,
overhead, upward, away, thence, outside
3. { then, never, ever, early, to-day, to-morrow,
recently, soon, always, afterwards
4. { therefore, consequently, wherefore, accordingly,
hence
5. { often, seldom, rarely, frequently, sometimes, once,
twice, thrice
6. { very, so, exceedingly, completely, too, most, only,
extremely, somewhat, much, more, almost, merely

NOTE. *Here and there, to and fro, through and through, now and then, by and by, over and over, again and again* are used as single adverbs. They are called *compound adverbs*.

II. *Write a list of the adverbs used in the following sentences. Place before or after each adverb the word which it modifies in meaning. Be prepared to answer: Which words tell how? where? when? why? how often? how much? how little?*

1. The specter silently glided into the room.
2. The train arrived earlier than we expected.
3. The children saw overhead a wonderful airship.
4. Clifford seldom showed any appreciation of his sister's sacrifice for him.
5. The trick is very easily performed.
6. Only yesterday you agreed to our terms; now you have failed us.
7. The ship stopped, then plunged headlong into the waves.
8. We frequently visited this charming country.
9. "You are too easily offended," father reminded me.
10. I had scarcely recovered from my fright, when my parents came home quite unexpectedly.
11. Hal had been warned again and again, but he continually refused to heed the warning.

III. *Write five sentences containing adverbs used in answer to the questions: Where? When? How? How much? Why? (Consult lists of adverbs on page 28.)*

IV. *Write eight sentences, each containing one of the adverbs in the fifth list on page 28.*

18. Prepositions

A preposition is a word used before a noun or pronoun to show how the noun or the pronoun is related to some other word in the sentence.

The burglar ran *across* the street.

The word *across* is a preposition because it is used before the noun *street* to show the relation between that noun and the verb *ran*.

The robe was rich *in* color.

The word *in* is a preposition because it is used before the noun *color* to show the relation of that noun to the adjective *rich*.

NOTE. The word *preposition* means *placed before*. The preposition is usually placed before the noun with which it is used.

EXERCISE

I. Copy the following list of prepositions, placing after each some noun or pronoun with which it may be used.

aboard	amongst	beyond	from
about	around	but (when it	in
above	at	means <i>except</i>)	into
across	athwart	by	near
after	before	concerning	notwith-
against	behind	despite	standing
along	below	down	of
amid	beneath	during	off
amidst	beside	except	on
among	between	for	over

save	till	underneath	upon
since	to	until	with
through	toward	unto	within
throughout	under	up	without

II. *Copy the following sentences. Underline once each preposition used. Underline twice the noun or pronoun with which it is used. Underline three times the word with which the noun or pronoun is connected by the preposition.*

Example

The boys rowed the boat across the stream.

1. Dried venison and smoked herring hung above the sooty rafters.
2. Cæsar with his army marched into Gaul.
3. Siegfried was eager for adventure.
4. Across the sky flamed a beautiful rainbow.
5. During the storm we sought shelter under the trees.
6. His statement concerning the law is false.
7. I stood on the deck and looked at the porpoises sporting in the water.
8. Washington was hopeful, despite the terrible conditions at Valley Forge.
9. The tourists from America were enthusiastic over the Scottish scenery.

NOTE. A preposition may be followed by two or more nouns or pronouns; as, "in *meadow* or *field*"; "between *him* and *me*."

Two prepositions may be followed by the same object; as, "up and down the *stream*."

A few prepositions consist of two or more words; as *according to; in accordance with; as to; over against; out of; in front of; away from; in respect to; on account of.*

19. Words Which may be Used either as Prepositions or as Adverbs

Many words commonly used as prepositions may be used as adverbs. Among these are the following: *aboard, about, above, along, around, before, behind, beyond, by, down, in, on, over, since, through, up, without, within.*

You can easily distinguish the preposition from the adverb, for the preposition is always followed by a noun or a pronoun which tells *what* or *whom*; as,

aboard the *ship*

about *Indians*

along the *road*

over the *wall*

around the *tree*

before *dinner*

behind the *tower*

by the *brook*

Note carefully that the adverbs in the following sentences are the same words as the prepositions above. The difference is wholly in *use*. The adverb does not show *relation* between two words as does the preposition.

The passengers were all *aboard*.

The ship turned *about* and set sail.

I should like to help you *along*.

Men stood *around* in small groups.

Why didn't you tell me *before*?

Henry fell *behind* in his work.

Are you going *over*?

They watched the soldiers march *by*.

EXERCISE

Tell which of the italicized words in the following sentences are prepositions and which are adverbs.

1. Come *along*; do not lag *behind*.
2. The signal guns sounded *before* sunrise.
3. The seats *above* us were unoccupied.
4. *Beyond* the mountain is a beautiful plain.
5. The squirrel ran *along* the branch until it reached a turn.
6. The motley group sat *around* a camp-fire.
7. The music was sweeter than any I had heard *before*.
8. I stood *on* the bridge *at* midnight.
9. *Beyond*, *in* the distance, lofty mountains rose.
10. The stars and stripes floated proudly *above*.
11. The flood rolled *on*, destroying everything *in* its course.

20. Errors in the Uses of Prepositions

Between—*among*. *Between* is used to refer to *two* objects or groups of objects; as, Mother divided the work *between* Belle and me. *Among* is used to refer to *more than two* objects; as, There was a difference of opinion *among* the members of our family.

At. *At* is sometimes incorrectly omitted after copulative verbs followed by the word *home*; as, He remained home (for) He remained *at* home; He is home (for) He is *at* home. *At* is sometimes incorrectly used for *in*; as, We remained *at* the city (for) We remained *in* the city.

In—*into*. *In* denotes *place where*; as, Fido walked around *in* the room (meaning that Fido was *in* the room, walking around). *Into* suggests *entrance into* some thing or place; as, Fido walked *into* the room (meaning that Fido *entered* the room from the outside).

In — within. *In* denoting time is used to indicate that a period of time is ended; as, I shall pay you *in* a month (meaning at the close of the month). *Within* means sometime before the end; as, I shall pay you *within* the month (meaning sometime before the close of the month).

From. *From*, not *than* or *to*, should follow the word *different*; as, Your book is different *from* mine. Jack thinks differently *from* the way I do.

Off of. Do not say, The passenger got *off of* a car. Say, The passenger got *off* the car.

Like. The word *like* is used as an adjective and as an adverb in the following sentences:

I am *like* (unto) my mother. (Adjective.)

The hound ran *like* (to or unto) a deer. (Adverb.)

In sentences like these, the preposition *to* or *unto* is always understood, but is almost never expressed. When *like* is used in this way it has the force of a preposition and should never be followed by a clause. We should never say, "He ran *like* I do" (for) "He ran *as* I do."

Do not use *like* where *as* or *as if* may be used in its stead.

EXERCISE

I. Supply prepositions for the following blanks:

1. A feud arose — the two families.
2. Harry, divide your cake — your five companions.
3. Mr. Edson is not — home to-day.
4. We remained — the city over night.
5. We remained — the hotel a week.
6. "Will you walk — my parlor," said the spider to the fly.
7. Our dog fell — the water with a splash.
8. Fido swam around — the water for an hour.

9. The boarder will settle his bill —— a week.

10. The captain said the game would be played sometime —— the month.

11. The climate of England is different —— that of Italy.

12. Fred is so different —— his father.

II. *Use the following prepositions correctly in sentences:*

between, among, at, in, unto, within, from, of, off

III. *Use the proper word, like, as, or as if, in each of the following. Give your reasons for your choice.*

1. John is —— me in some respects.

2. Tom rides —— he were not afraid.

3. You look —— you were happy.

4. The ridge looked —— a mountain.

5. The Indian talked —— white man talks.

6. Francis sings —— a nightingale.

7. Dorothy sings —— she were a nightingale.

21. Conjunctions

A conjunction is a word used to join words or groups of words.

Oranges and grape-fruit grow in Florida.

The word *and* is a conjunction, because it joins the words *oranges* and *grape-fruit*.

Shall you stay with me, *or* shall you go with mother?

The word *or* is a conjunction, because it is used to join the groups of words, *Shall you stay with me* and *shall you go with mother*.

NOTE. The word *conjunction* means a joining. The conjunction, like the preposition, *joins* or *connects* certain

parts of a sentence. *Unlike* the preposition, it is not used to show relation between words.

The following words are commonly used as conjunctions:

1. Words which may join either words or groups of words: *and, but, or, nor*; *as*,

Football *and* baseball are splendid games (*and* connects two words.)

All pupils are required to read distinctly *and* to write legibly. (*and* connects the two groups of words, as shown.)

2. Words which introduce groups of words and join them to other words or groups of words: *although, as, because, for, if, than, though, till, unless, until, that*; *as*,

Frank is attractive, *although* he is very homely.

Mary stayed at home *because* her mother was ill.

Although and *because* introduce groups of words and join them to the groups preceding.

EXERCISE

I. *The conjunctions in the following sentences join words or groups of words. Name the parts connected in each sentence.*

1. Rip neglected his house *and* garden.

2. Not enjoyment *and* not sorrow is our destined end *or* way.

3. I shall not attempt to prove my statement, *nor* shall I deny it.

4. Napoleon was dictatorial *and* haughty.

5. Horace was not angry *but* hurt.

6. The decision will be announced to-day *or* to-morrow.

7. That Lee was a good general *and* that he was a sincere patriot are generally conceded.

8. The storm was severe, *but* it did little damage to the crops.

9. Oliver told his friend how wretchedly he had been treated, *and* how unhappy he had been.

10. To back out of an uncertain expedition, *or* to quit a comrade on the road is cowardly.

II. *The conjunctions used in the following sentences introduce certain groups of words and join them to certain other groups. Underline once the conjunctions themselves. Underline twice the groups which are introduced by the conjunctions. Underline three times the groups with which they are connected.*

1. If the rain continues, we shall break camp to-morrow.

2. George was guilty, although he did not acknowledge his wrong.

3. Every one arose as King George entered the hall.

4. The guests arrived earlier than we expected.

5. The colonists rebelled because they were severely oppressed.

6. The birds had not gone south, though it was very cold.

7. Unless the greatest precaution is taken, the fever is likely to spread.

22. Interjections

An interjection is a word used to express sudden or strong feeling.

Alas! they are gone.

Aha! the rapids are before you.

Hurrah! hurrah! our team has won!
Oh! you frightened me.
Pshaw! why did I play that way?

NOTE. An interjection is not a true part of the sentence in which it stands. That is, the interjection is not grammatically related to any other word in the sentence.

EXERCISE

Draw a table similar to the one shown below, and place in its proper column each word of the following sentences:

<i>Noun</i>	<i>Pron.</i>	<i>Adj.</i>	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Adv.</i>	<i>Prep.</i>	<i>Conj.</i>	<i>Interj.</i>

1. Many bushels of potatoes were shipped from Denver to St. Louis.

2. The immigrants were soon settled in their new homes in America.

3. There he stood with his ragged hat in his hands.

4. Hush! you will wake him.

5. I am very sorry, but I cannot come.

6. Alas! these roses once so beautiful are now withered and dead.

7. A son of the illustrious Charles Dickens died while he was traveling in America.

8. Faster and faster fell the snow crystals, until the ground was completely covered with a soft white blanket.

23. Review

Why are words divided into eight parts of speech? Name the eight parts of speech. Define a noun. A pronoun. An adjective. A verb. An adverb. A preposition. A

conjunction. An interjection. Nouns may name what? What parts of speech does the adjective always modify in meaning? What does the word *modify* mean? What else may a verb do besides assert? When you are trying to find verbs in sentences, what questions will be helpful to you? What parts of speech have their meanings modified by adverbs? What questions do adverbs answer? How are prepositions and conjunctions alike? How are they different? Name the conjunctions which merely connect. Name the conjunctions which introduce groups of words and join them to other words or groups of words.

CHAPTER III

MODIFIERS AND ELEMENTS IN THE SENTENCE

A sentence may consist of but two parts — the *subject substantive* and the *predicate verb*; as,

Snow melts. Water freezes. Fire burns.

We frequently use, in addition to the subject substantive and the predicate verb, other words or groups of words, which we call *modifiers*.

We generally use *modifiers* to make our sentences clearer and more interesting. The sentence, *Ostriches run*, makes complete sense, but it is not interesting. We may improve the sentence by using *modifiers* to add to the meaning of both subject substantive and predicate verb; as,

(Modifiers)	(Subj. Sub.)	(Pred. Verb)	(Modifiers)
The large, ungainly	OSTRICHES	RUN	very swiftly.

(Modifiers)	(Subj. Sub.)	(Modifier)	(Pred. Verb)	(Modifier)
The tall, red	HOUSE	with gable ends	STOOD	in a valley.

A **modifier** is a word or a group of words which changes or adds to the meaning of some other word in a sentence.

EXERCISE

Point out, in the following sentences, the words or groups of words used as modifiers of the subject substantives and of the predicate verbs:

1. A ray of moonlight fell across the floor.
2. A large white house, which stood on yonder hill, burned to the ground yesterday morning.
3. A tricky boy in our neighborhood always played with other dishonest boys.
4. The peanut grows underground as a part of the roots.
5. The little aeroplane which my brothers made, flew along like a big, black bird.

24. Predicate Noun or Pronoun and Predicate Adjective

In each of the following sentences, a word used in the predicate, after the predicate verb, is closely connected with the subject. It either means the same person or thing named in the subject, or else it modifies the meaning of the subject by describing or by pointing out the person or thing named. Can you point out this word in each predicate? Is it a noun or a pronoun or an adjective?

Harold is chairman.

It was they.

I am she.

The leaves are brown.

The world is round.

The battle was fierce.

A noun or a pronoun used in a predicate to refer to the subject by denoting the same person or thing, is called a *predicate noun* or a *predicate pronoun*. An adjective used in the predicate to modify the meaning of the subject is called a *predicate adjective*.

NOTE. A predicate noun or a predicate pronoun may be called a predicate substantive.

Point out the predicate nouns, predicate pronouns, and predicate adjectives in the preceding sentences.

A predicate substantive is a noun or pronoun used to complete a predicate verb and to refer to the subject of the verb.

A predicate adjective is a word used to complete a predicate verb and to modify the meaning of the subject of the verb.

EXERCISE

I. *Point out, in the following sentences, the predicate substantives and the predicate adjectives:*

1. Flowers are fragrant.
2. This flower is a harebell.
3. The thief was he.
4. Our automobile is a good car.
5. The house is old and rambling.
6. The captain was named Ben Holt.
7. Father looked handsome in his new suit.
8. The peaches were ripe, sweet, and juicy.
9. The culprit turned pale.
10. Fred seemed a gentleman in every respect.
11. Russell has been tardy several times.
12. Halford was chosen treasurer of our club.

II. *Use in sentences, containing predicate substantives or predicate adjectives, the verbs which are often followed by predicate nouns, predicate pronouns, or predicate adjectives; as, am, was, been, is, are, were, become, seem, etc.*

III. *Change the following groups into sentences by adding the necessary predicate substantives or the predicate adjectives:*

1. Art thou ——? (Pronoun.)
2. I am —— (Pronoun.)
3. Rip Van Winkle was —— (Adjective.)
4. The kittens were —— (Adjective.)
5. Yes, it is —— (Pronoun.)
6. Mary and Jane were chosen —— of the club (Noun.)
7. The air seemed —— (Adjective.)
8. Nelson was considered a great —— (Noun.)
9. The tree grew —— (Adjective.)
10. The onion tasted —— Adjective.)

NOTE. Only these pronouns may be used as predicate pronouns to complete the verbs *am, is, are, art, was, were, has been, will be*, etc.: *I, thou, you, he, she, it, we, and they*.

25. The Object

The subject substantive and the predicate verb are essential parts of every sentence. A related group of words may have both these parts without expressing a complete thought. Observe:

The farmer raises ——

The travelers ate a ——

The flood destroyed ——

Each of these groups of words has a subject substantive and a predicate verb; yet the thought of each is incomplete. The predicate verbs, *raises, ate, and destroyed*, denote both active agents and receivers of actions. In these sentences the active agents are named in the subjects, *farmer, travelers, and flood*; the names of the receivers of actions, which are necessary to the complete sentences, are omitted. The sentences completed, might read,

The farmer raises *corn*.
The travelers ate a hearty *meal*.
The flood destroyed our *town*.

These italicized words, *corn*, *meal*, and *town* are used to complete the predicate verbs *raises*, *ate*, and *destroyed*, by naming the receivers of the actions. Words so used are called *objects*.

An object in a sentence, unlike a predicate substantive, usually denotes some person or thing other than the person or thing named in the subject.

An object is usually a noun or a pronoun used to complete the meaning of a predicate verb by denoting the receiver of some action or feeling expressed in the verb.

It answers the question, "what" or "whom."

EXERCISE

I. *Point out in the predicate of each of the following sentences, the noun which names the receiver of an action, a thought, or a feeling. What part of the sentence do you call each noun which you have pointed out?*

1. The cat-bird killed a snake.
2. Lightning struck our large elm tree.
3. John made a toy-clock.
4. The Wright brothers invented the air ship.
5. The cyclone uprooted trees and tore down houses.
6. The soldiers pitched their tents near our home.
7. Helen planted radish seeds and onion sets in her garden.
8. The colonists threw the tea overboard into the Atlantic Ocean.

II. Complete the following groups of words by adding to the predicate verbs, the names of receivers of the actions expressed by the verbs. What do you call each noun you have added?

1. The postman delivered — (what?)
2. The lawyer denied — (what?)
3. The chauffeur broke — (what?)
4. The Indian suffered great — (what?)
5. The governor appointed — (whom?)
6. Everybody respects — (whom?)
7. Did you misspell — (what?)
8. Please bring — to me (what?)
9. The engine burns — (what?)

26. Phrases

A phrase is a group of closely related words not having a subject and a predicate.

A phrase is always used in a sentence with the force of a single word. That is, a phrase does the work of a single part of speech. Thus,

The Czar of Russia was assassinated.

The phrase, *Czar of Russia*, is used like a noun because it names a person. It is used as a subject, because it names the person of whom something is said.

The highwayman *should have been punished*.

The phrase, *should have been punished*, is used as a *predicate verb*, because it tells something about the person named in the subject.

A flag of *bright colors* was suspended *from the ceiling*.

The phrase, *of bright colors*, is used like an adjective because it modifies the meaning of the noun *flag* by describing the flag itself. The phrase is equivalent to the adjective *bright-colored*.

The phrase, *from the ceiling*, is used like an adverb because it modifies the meaning of the verb *was suspended* by telling *where* the flag was suspended.

EXERCISE

I. *The italicized groups of words in the following sentences are phrases. Tell why they are phrases. Like what part of speech is each phrase used — noun, verb, adjective, or adverb?*

1. *The Last of the Mohicans* is one of Cooper's best stories.

2. The ship *will be finished* next fall.

3. A doll *with curly hair* looked out *from the show window*.

4. The boat was named *Maid of the Mist*.

5. A gentle breeze *from the south* was sighing *in the tree*.

6. Gold *had been discovered* along the Yukon.

7. A gleam *of anger* flashed *in his eyes*.

II. *Like what part of speech is each of the following italicized phrases used?*

1. The snowy summits rose *above the clouds*. (*Where* did the summits *rise*?)

2. The summits *above the clouds* were covered with snow. (*Which summits* were covered with snow?)

3. Dr. Spink spoke *in a gentle voice*. (*How* did she *speak*?)

4. A voice of *gentle tone* distinguished the doctor. (What *kind of voice* distinguished the doctor?)

5. A man *from New York* has built a factory here. (What *man* has built a factory here?)

6. The man who built this factory came *from New York*. (Where did the man come from?)

7. A woman of *deep sorrow* sat by the bedside. (What *kind of woman* sat by the bedside?)

A phrase may be used like a noun, a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

27. Prepositional Phrases

A prepositional phrase is a phrase which is introduced by a preposition.

<i>toward</i> town	<i>beyond</i> help
<i>in</i> grief	<i>about</i> Indians

The preceding groups are prepositional phrases because they are introduced by prepositions.

A prepositional phrase may contain, in addition to the preposition and the principal substantive which follows it, words which modify the substantive; as,

(Preposition)	(Modifier)	(Substantive)
aboard	a large, pleasant	boat
after	a prolonged	murmur
for	poor, poor	me

A prepositional phrase is often used as a part of another prepositional phrase; as,

At the foot OF A MOUNTAIN.

In an agitated frame OF MIND.

The phrases of *a mountain* and of *mind* are parts of the phrases at the foot of *a mountain* and in an agitated frame of *mind*.

A complex phrase consists of a phrase within a phrase.

EXERCISE .

I. *Copy the following sentences. Underline once the prepositional phrases which modify the meanings of nouns. Underline twice the prepositional phrases which modify the meanings of verbs or adjectives. Tell which phrases are complex phrases.*

1. The soldiers of the first battalion charged upon the enemy with great bravery.
2. The Russian army was guarded by the artillery.
3. Joseph possessed a coat of many colors.
4. The hills toward the north rise from a gentle valley.
5. The soldier was tired from watching.
6. Can a camel go through the eye of a needle?
7. Ernest lived in a valley between two high hills.
8. A path through the middle of the garden was shaded by trees of slender growth.
9. During the discussion of a question of civil rights, one of the councilmen became ill.

II. *Tell which of the following groups of words are phrases and which are sentences:*

1. Forth from the cavern came the fiery dragon.
2. Into the jaws of death.
3. The fleet-footed messenger with torch in hand.
4. A house divided against itself cannot stand.
5. He is a free man whom the truth makes free.

6. If wishes were horses, beggars might ride.
7. With malice toward none and with charity for all.
8. Blessed is the man who has found his work.

28. Uses of Phrases

Phrases may be used in various ways. Observe how the phrases in the following sentences are used:

1. *To fight bravely* requires great courage.

To fight bravely is the subject of the sentence; hence it is a *substantive phrase*.

2. To hesitate is *to suffer defeat*.

To suffer defeat is a predicate substantive following the verb *is*; hence it is a *substantive phrase*.

3. John hopes *to succeed in business*.

To succeed in business is the direct object of the verb *hopes*; hence it is a *substantive phrase*.

4. Cæsar, *charging upon the enemy*, put them to rout.

Charging upon the enemy modifies the noun *Cæsar*; hence it is an *adjectival phrase*.

5. Then he, *rising in anger*, spoke of the wrongs of his tribe.

Rising in anger modifies the pronoun *he*; hence it is an *adjectival phrase*.

6. The stream plunged *down the rocky gorge*.

Down the rocky gorge modifies the verb *plunged*; hence it is an *adverbial phrase*.

7. Lincoln was impressive *in speech*.

In speech modifies the adjective *impressive*; hence it is an *adverbial phrase*.

EXERCISE

I. *Name the adjectival and the adverbial phrases in the following sentences:*

1. We study to learn.
2. I stood between two fires.
3. Apples to cook are now in market.
4. To one fixed hope my spirit clings.
5. The soldier, seizing a flag, rushed forward.
6. The skillful oarsman rowed us across the lake.
7. A rain of fire destroyed Sodom and Gomorrah.

II. *Point out the substantive phrases in the following sentences:*

1. Our school hopes to win the final game.
2. His reading the selection so well gained him a promotion.
3. The general's command was to fire at the first signal.
4. The army expected to advance a little farther.
5. To exalt his country was his chief aim.
6. To desert a comrade on the road is a cowardly trick.

29. Words and Phrases Used in Apposition

A word or a group of words added to a noun or a pronoun to explain its meaning, and denoting the same person, place, or thing, is said to be in *apposition* with the noun or pronoun.

Harold, *the king*, was defeated.

The word *king* is added to the word *Harold* to explain who Harold was; hence we say that the noun *king* is in apposition with the noun *Harold*.

I, *the consul of the Roman people*, will protect and defend you.

The phrase, *the consul of the Roman people*, is in apposition with the pronoun *I* because it is added to explain who is meant by the pronoun *I*. It denotes the same person as the pronoun *I*.

Words or groups of words used in apposition are generally placed directly after the words which they modify.

Words or groups of words used in apposition are called **appositives**.

EXERCISE

Write a list of the words and phrases which are used in apposition with nouns and pronouns in the following sentences. Place before each appositive the noun or pronoun which it modifies.

1. William, Duke of Normandy, became William the Conqueror.

2. Indiana, the Hoosier State, is the home of many literary men and women.

3. Pocahontas, the daughter of an Indian chief, visited England.

4. Our class is reading *Twice Told Tales*, a book of short stories.

5. The Amazon River, the longest stream in South America, flows through a magnificent forest.

30. The Principal and the Subordinate Elements of a Sentence

Every sentence must have at least two parts — the *subject substantive* and the *predicate verb*. One of three other parts is frequently necessary to complete the meaning of a sentence — an *object* or a *predicate substantive* or a *predicate adjective*. Because these five parts are necessary parts, we call them the *principal elements* in the sentence.

To these principal elements, we frequently join words or groups of words, used as *modifiers*. To these modifiers we often join other modifiers. Because modifiers are not always necessary parts of the sentence, but are always subordinate to the parts which they modify, we call them *subordinate elements*.

Example

(Modifiers)	(Subj. Substan.)	(Predicate Verb)	(Object)
A scientific	farmer	sprays	fruit-trees
(Modifiers)			

in order to save them from decay.

31. Two Uses of Modifiers

Modifiers have two uses: (1) an *adjectival* use; (2) an *adverbial* use.

A word or group of words which modifies the meaning of a noun or a pronoun is an *adjectival modifier*.

The large white house on the hill belongs to Governor Brown.

The adjectives *the*, *large*, and *white* are *adjectival* word modifiers, because they modify the meaning of the noun

house. The phrase *on the hill* is an adjectival phrase modifier, because it, too, modifies the meaning of the noun *house*. *Hugh's books* are in the desk.

The noun *Hugh's* is an adjectival word modifier of the noun *books*.

John, the barber, is very talkative.

The appositive noun *barber* is an adjectival modifier of the noun *John*, because it adds something to the meaning of the noun *John*.

NOTE. Nouns used to show possession, and appositive nouns, are always used as *adjectival modifiers*.

The stream flowed *rapidly*.

The adverb *rapidly* is an adverbial word modifier, because it modifies the meaning of the verb *flowed*.

The mosquito came *from the marshes*.

The phrase *from the marshes* is an adverbial phrase modifier, because it modifies the meaning of the verb *came*.

A modifier is a word or a group of words which changes or limits the meaning of some other word.

A modifier which changes the meaning of a noun or a pronoun is an adjectival modifier.

A modifier which changes the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb is an adverbial modifier.

EXERCISE

Copy the following sentences. Underline once the adjectival modifiers. Underline twice the adverbial modifiers. Indicate phrase modifiers by inclosing them in braces.

Example

An exciting game {of football} was played {at Lincoln Park} yesterday.

1. The best honey comes from the milder parts of the temperate zone.

2. In the West, wild honey is gathered in large quantities.

3. Melissa, the goddess of honey, has placed her seal upon the linden tree.

4. One day a farmer heard a queer growling sound in the grass.

5. The proud song of the bird had ceased from his accustomed tree.

6. In a niche of the earthy wall, the tiny bird had built her nest.

7. Cæsar's army marched ten miles before daybreak.

8. Cæsar made a three days' journey in pursuit of the enemy.

32. Analysis of Sentences

We may analyze a sentence (1) by classifying it; (2) by pointing out its principal parts and their modifiers; (3) by explaining fully the relation which each part bears to some other part in the sentence. Thus,

A tender vine with large white flowers gracefully climbed the trellis in our side yard.

This is a declarative sentence because it states a fact.

The complete subject is the group of words *A tender vine, with large, white flowers*. The complete predicate is the group of words *gracefully climbed the*

trellis in our side yard. The subject substantive is the noun *vine*. The predicate verb is the word *climbed*. The object is the noun *trellis*.

The subject substantive, *vine*, is modified in meaning by the adjectival words *A* and *tender* and by the adjectival phrase *with large, white flowers*. The principal word of this phrase is the noun *flowers*, modified in meaning by the adjectival words *large* and *white*.

The predicate verb, *climbed*, is followed by the direct object *trellis* and is modified by the adverbial word *gracefully*.

The object *trellis* is modified in meaning by the adjectival word *the* and by the adjectival phrase *in our side yard*. The principal word of this phrase is the noun *yard*, which is modified in meaning by the adjectival words *our* and *side*.

Analysis is the process of separating a sentence into its parts in order to make clear the relation which exists between those parts.

EXERCISE

Write the analysis of the following sentences. Use the plan of analysis given above.

1. Edwin smiled.
2. The mischievous boy smiled gleefully.
3. The mischievous boy with merry twinkling eyes smiled gleefully at us.
4. The old gentleman's smile was very pleasant.
5. A rosy-cheeked lass stood in the doorway of the old cabin.

6. A deep, powdery snow covered the ground on Christmas day.

7. The timid mother rabbit suddenly became a bundle of fury.

33. Analysis by Diagram

Sometimes we may make the analysis of a sentence simpler and clearer, and we may also save time, by making use of a diagram. A diagram, by giving us a sort of picture, simply indicates the kind of work which words have to do in the sentence, and the relation which they bear to each other. In a well-made diagram, each line should have a definite meaning.

Note carefully the following diagrams:

(Subject Substantive) (Predicate Verb)

1. Flowers | grow.

The subject substantive and the predicate verb are written on a straight line, and are separated by a vertical line extending through the main line.

2. Roses are beautiful.

Roses | are \ beautiful

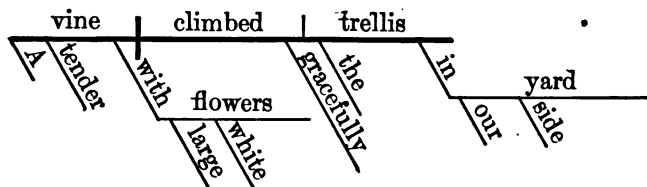
A predicate adjective or a predicate substantive is written on the main line after the predicate verb. The slanting line between the predicate verb and the predicate adjective shows that the predicate adjective modifies the subject. Note that this line slants *toward* the subject.

3. Roses have fragrance.

Roses | have | fragrance

The direct object is placed on the main line after the predicate verb. It is separated from the verb by a vertical line which extends a little above but not below the main line. The straight line shows that the direct object simply completes the verb without modifying the subject.

4. A tender vine with large white flowers gracefully climbed the trellis in our side yard.



Word modifiers are placed on slanting lines which extend from lines containing the words modified. Phrase modifiers are written on phrase lines extending from lines containing the words modified. A phrase line consists of a slanting line joined at its lower end to a horizontal line. Note that the preposition which introduces the phrase is written on the slanting line, and that the principal word following is written on the horizontal line.

EXERCISE

Diagram the sentences in Exercise I, page 44.

Diagram the following sentences and analyze them orally :

1. The rose smells sweet.
2. James quickly caught the ball.
3. A heavy gale from the north filled our sails.
4. Florence laughed heartily at the joke.
5. The convention adjourned after a long session.

6. Venus seemed a huntress to Æneas.
7. King Alfred was called Truth Teller.
8. The campus was shady.
9. The committee chose a temporary chairman.
10. The thief turned pale.

34. Analysis of Sentences Having Inverted Order

Before we analyze a sentence having inverted order, we must arrange it in its natural order.

EXERCISE

Change the transposed words and groups of words in the following sentences to the natural order. Diagram the changed sentences. Analyze them orally.

1. Flashed all their sabers bare.
2. Down came the rain.
3. Aloft waved the glorious banner.
4. Into the valley of Death rode the six hundred.
5. Now glowed the firmament with living sapphires.
6. This plan the captain scornfully rejected.
7. At the entrance sat a grim watchman.
8. Where art thou?

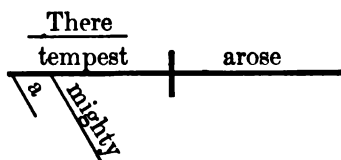
The Words There and It as Expletives

The word *there* is frequently used in a sentence as an introductory word having no grammatical connection with any other word; as,

There arose a mighty tempest.

When *there* is used in this way, to fill a gap in the sentence it is called an *expletive*. In diagramming this

sentence, we write the word *there* on a separate line, thus showing that it has no real connection with any other word in the sentence; as,



It is pleasant to read.

In this sentence, the word *it* is a mere expletive, not a real subject, because it does not denote anything of which something is said. The real subject in the sentence is the substantive phrase, *to read*.

The word *it* used as an expletive must not be confused with the pronoun *it*, used as subject; as,

It is raining.

It was John who came.

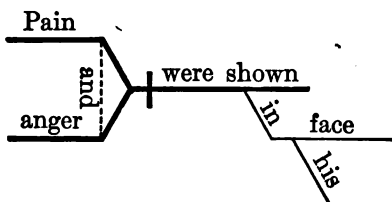
When *it* is used as an expletive, the real subject can be substituted; as, *It is pleasant to read—To read is pleasant.* When *it* is used as a real subject, no word can reasonably be substituted for it.

35. Compound Elements

A sentence, as we have learned, may contain a *compound subject* or a *compound predicate*, or both. A sentence may contain, also, a *compound predicate adjective* or *predicate substantive* or a *compound object*. Any two or more parts of a sentence having exactly the same office in the sentence form a compound element.

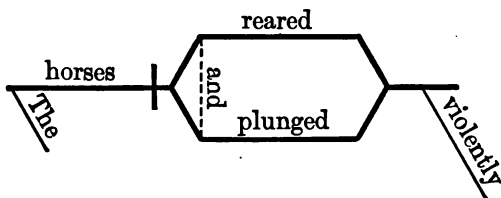
Observe the diagrams of the following sentences having compound parts:

1. Pain and anger were shown in his face.



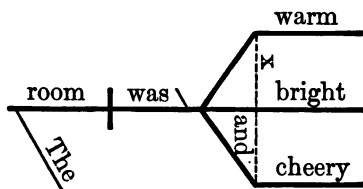
The parts of a compound subject are placed on parallel lines and are connected by *and*, *but*, *or*, or *nor*, as in the diagram.

2. The horses reared and plunged violently.



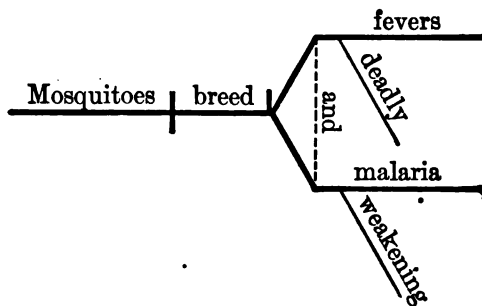
The parts of a compound predicate are written on parallel lines, as in the preceding diagram. Note the position of the word *violently*, which modifies both parts of the compound predicate.

3. The room was warm, bright, and cheery.

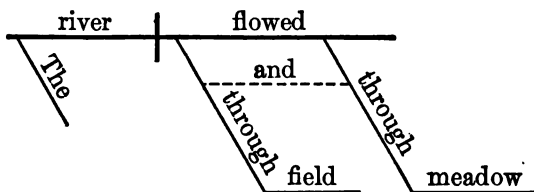


Note the use of the sign x to indicate the omission of *and* between the first two parts of the compound predicate adjective.

4. Mosquitoes breed deadly fevers and weakening malaria.



5. The river flowed through field and through meadow.



Note the way in which the phrases are joined.

A compound element consisting of two or more word members has its separate parts written on separate parallel lines. A compound element consisting of two or more phrases has its parts written on separate phrase lines joined by *and*, *but*, *or*, or *nor*.

EXERCISE

Diagram the following sentences. Which of these elements are : (a) compound subjects; (b) compound predi-

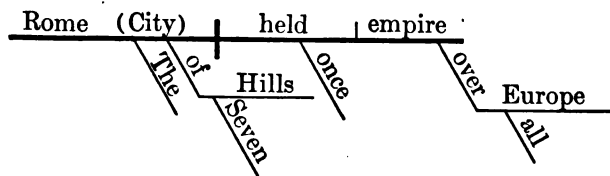
cates; (c) *compound predicate adjectives or substantives*;
 (d) *compound objects*?

1. Winter and summer came and went.
2. The orange is juicy and sweet.
3. Lincoln was a noble man and a wise statesman.
4. Father and mother are my best friends and counselors.
5. The tree grew straight and tall.
6. The hunter killed many lions, tigers, and elephants.
7. The dog bit my little brother and me.
8. No moon or stars do I see.
9. A strong heart and a steady hand distinguish the true soldier from the coward.
10. The merry makers danced and sang through the midnight hours.

36. Appositive Modifiers

In the diagram of a sentence, the appositive modifier is placed after the word which it explains, and is inclosed in parentheses; as,

Rome, The City of Seven Hills, once held empire over all Europe.



EXERCISE

Diagram the following sentences containing appositive modifiers:

1. Nordica, a great prima donna, lived in America.
2. This is a scorpion, a poisonous insect from the tropics.

3. The American Revolutionists hanged Major André, a British spy.

4. Nicholas, Czar of Russia, rules many people.

37. Review

Name and define the kinds of sentences. Give an example of each kind. How is each kind punctuated? What are the principal parts of a sentence called? Define each of the principal parts and point them out in a sentence. What is the difference between a predicate substantive or predicate adjective and a direct object? Give examples to show the difference. Define a modifier. Into what two classes are modifiers divided? How may you tell one kind of modifier from another? Why do we analyze sentences? What is the short way of analyzing a sentence? Define each of the eight parts of speech. How may we tell the part of speech to which any word belongs? What is the difference between an adverb and a preposition? Give examples to show the difference. What is the difference between a preposition and a conjunction? Show the difference by examples. What do we mean by the antecedent of a pronoun? Give an example. What is a verb phrase? Give an example. In what ways may phrases be used? Name the conjunctions which connect parts used alike. Name the conjunctions used to introduce groups of words and to join these groups to other groups of different rank.

38. Clauses

Each of the following sentences consists of two distinct groups of words. Each group has a subject and a predicate.

1. The sheep are lying on the hillside | (and) the cows are grazing in the pasture below.

2. The dinner was badly cooked | (but) father did not make the least complaint.

3. On the bank stood a tree | which was a hundred years old.

4. Though the vase was made of bronze, | the careless servant broke it.

5. Every man answered cheerfully | when the call for volunteers was issued by the president.

6. We stood on the ground | where the Battle of Waterloo was fought.

7. John is the boy | who gave the warning.

Point out in each preceding sentence two distinct groups, each having a subject and a predicate. Give the subject substantive and the predicate verb of each group.

Each group of words which you have pointed out is called a *clause*. It has a subject and a predicate, but it is only a part of a sentence.

A clause is a group of related words having a subject and a predicate, and forming a part of a sentence.

EXERCISE

Point out the clauses in each of the following sentences. Give the subject substantive and the predicate verb of each clause.

1. He that is giddy thinks the world turns around.

2. I stood on the bridge at midnight

As the clocks were striking the hour.

3. The boy stood on the burning deck

Whence all but him had fled.

4. I love my pretty garden where all things look so bright.

5. The stream will not flow and the hill will not rise.
6. The waves beside them danced, but they
Outdid the sparkling waves in glee.

39. Principal and Subordinate Clauses

Tell which clause in each of the following sentences would make complete sense if it were separated from the rest of the sentence. Tell which clause in each sentence would not make complete sense if it were made to stand alone.

1. We next visited a factory | where only foreign labor was employed.
2. There stood a freckle-faced boy | who had been robbing our orchard.
3. When he had finished speaking, | Tom sat down amid peals of laughter.
4. Before the storm broke, | the air was close and hot.
5. If wishes were horses, | beggars might ride.
6. Here is a house | which is said to be haunted.

In each of the preceding sentences is a clause which would make complete sense if it stood alone; as,

1. We next visited a factory,
2. There stood a freckle-faced boy,

Clauses like these are called *principal clauses*.

In each sentence there is also a clause which would not make complete sense if it were separated from the rest of the sentence; as,

1. where only foreign labor was employed.
2. who had been robbing our orchard.

Clauses like these are called *subordinate clauses*.

A principal clause is a clause which would make complete sense if it stood alone.

A subordinate clause is one which would not make complete sense if it stood alone.

EXERCISE

Point out the principal and the subordinate clauses in the following sentences:

1. The roses soon withered that hung o'er the trellis.
2. He is the freeman whom the truth makes free.
3. It is the hour when from the boughs
The nightingale's high note is heard.
4. Nature never did betray
The heart that loved her.
5. There came two blighting seasons when the fields were left barren.

40. Clauses Distinguished from Phrases

A clause, like a phrase, is a group of closely related words forming only a part of a sentence. A clause, unlike a phrase, has a subject and a predicate.

EXERCISE

I. In the following sentences, tell which groups of closely related words are phrases and which are subordinate clauses:

1. When the alarm was given, we rushed to the scene of the fire.
2. Before we reached the city of Ghent, Roland's nostrils were like pits full of blood to the brim.
3. Rip, an urchin begotten in his own likeness, promised to inherit the habits along with the old clothes of his father.

4. When school hours were over, Ichabod played with the boys who had pretty sisters.

5. A boat, carelessly launched, is likely to tip over in the water.

6. If morning brings no tidings of the lost ship, we shall give up in despair.

II. *The following groups of words are taken from the sentences to which they belong. Which groups may be used as clauses? Which are phrases?*

1. When the fox thought he was near enough

2. As they rode by

3. In the first few days of school

4. That he would do the right thing

5. Jumping from tree-top to tree-top

6. Like a mound built by the Indians in memory of a giant chief

7. As they walked through the forest where her own footprints had never been

CHAPTER IV

PARTS OF SPEECH: CLASSIFICATION AND INFLECTION

41. The Noun

When we are talking or writing, we must call persons or things by names. A word used as the name of a person or thing is called a *noun*.

Wood burns.

London is crowded.

Frank is ill.

That *man* is honest.

Each of the names used in these sentences is a noun.

A noun is the name of a person, a place, or a thing.

Classes of Nouns — Common and Proper

Each of the nouns following may be applied to any person or thing in its class. They do not name particular things or places; hence they are *common nouns*.

boy, dog, city, state, street, pencil, herd, army, heat

A name which may be applied to any one of a class of objects is a common noun.

EXERCISE

I. Write five names which may be applied to different classes of people; as, boy, man, etc.

Write five names which may be applied to places, but not to particular places; as, city, country, etc.

Write five nouns which may be applied to things; as, rat, scissors, ashes, etc.

Frequently we must call a boy by a particular name to distinguish him from other boys; as, "*John* was badly hurt." We must also call a particular city by its particular name in order to distinguish it from other cities; as, "*Denver* ranks well in population." In like manner, we call particular things by particular names; as, "*The Coliseum* (a particular Roman amphitheater) has long been in ruins." Such nouns as these are *proper nouns*.

A name which belongs to a particular person, place, or thing is a proper noun.

II. *Why is each of the following words a proper noun? What in particular does each name?*

Carlo, Portland, Meridian Street, Thursday, The New York Sun, Bunker Hill, Pyramids of Egypt

III. *Write all the proper nouns which you find in the following list:*

January, country, Chicago, Tennyson, general, New York Tribune, Euclid Avenue, automobile, aeroplane, telegram, Minneapolis.

Observe that each proper noun begins with a capital letter.

A common noun does not begin with a capital letter unless the name is used at the beginning of a sentence.

42. Special Classes of Nouns

1. Some nouns name general ideas; as,
liberty, heroism, friendship, pleasure, hatred

Other nouns name the qualities of objects; as,
whiteness, sweetness, purity, strength, warmth,

Such nouns are called *abstract nouns*, because they name qualities, conditions, traits, and feelings rather than objects.

Some abstract nouns end in *ness*; as,
bitterness, softness, blackness, cleanliness

Some abstract nouns end in *ty, hood, dom, ship*; as,
cruelty, manhood, wisdom, friendship

An abstract noun is one used to name a quality, condition, trait, or feeling.

2. Some nouns name groups of persons or things; as,
crowd, army, flock, nation, band, herd, club, team.

Such names are *collective nouns*. They cannot be applied to individual objects. For example, *herd* names a *group of cows*, but cannot be used in speaking of the *single cow*.

A collective noun is a name which may be applied to a group of objects but not to any individual object in the group.

NOTE. Collective nouns are usually common nouns, as in the preceding examples. They may become proper nouns if they name particular groups or classes; as, *the Army of the Potomac; the Hamilton Club; the Yale Crew*.

3. Sometimes two or more words are used together as a single name; as,

bookplate, commander-in-chief, newspaper, railroad,
grasshopper

Names like these are called *compound nouns*.

A compound noun is a single name composed of two or more words.

A compound noun is written in one of the following ways:

- (1) With the hyphen between its parts; as,
knight-errant, forget-me-not
- (2) With no separation between its parts; as,
spoonful, typewriter, airship, teacup
- (3) As separate words; as,
game warden, yacht club, grass plot, angel food

NOTE. Usage varies so widely in the writing of compound words that we should consult the dictionary whenever we are in doubt.

EXERCISE

I. *Point out the kinds of nouns in the following sentences. Which are abstract, collective, compound? Which are common or proper nouns? Explain the capital letters used.*

1. The general leads a hostile band toward the city.
2. The army fought hard for the victory.
3. The Republican party nominated Lincoln.
4. The crew of the life-boat showed great heroism.

5. The Hebrew race has had a most interesting history.
6. Liberty, equality, fraternity were the watch-words of the Jacobin party of the French Revolution.
7. The Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals was organized by Henry Berg.
8. Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence.
9. The rights of the people should be conserved.

II. *Write the abstract nouns which correspond to each of the following adjectives: great (greatness), empty, brave, just, beautiful, deep, high, sorry, lonely, friendly, sick.*

Write the collective nouns which are applied to groups of each of the following: wolves, hogs, buffaloes, bees, ball-players, grapes, soldiers, pupils, fish, birds.

III. *Write five compound nouns in which the hyphen is used. Write five in which no hyphen is used. Write five consisting of two separate words.*

43. Inflection

A word may change its form in various ways to show changes in its use or meaning. Thus the noun *boy* may become *boys* to name more than one boy; it may become *boy's* to show that the boy possesses something; as, The *boy's* dog. The noun *host*, indicating a man, may become *hostess* to indicate that the person named is a woman.

Likewise, pronouns, adjectives, and verbs may change their forms to show changes in their meanings and uses.

This change in the form of a word to show a change in its use or meaning is called inflection.

44. Singular and Plural Number

Nouns frequently change their forms to show differences in meaning or use.

The cherry *tree* was in bloom.

The cherry *trees* were in bloom.

The subject of the first sentence names a *single* cherry tree; the subject of the second sentence names *more than one* cherry tree. The change in the meaning of the word is shown by the addition of *s* to the noun *tree*. In like manner, *dog*, *book*, *girl* may become *dogs*, *books*, *girls* to show *more than one dog*, *book*, *girl*.

This distinction in the uses of nouns to show one or more than one is called number.

When *one* person or thing is named, the noun is in the *singular number*; as, The *dog* growled.

When *two* or *more persons* or things are named, the noun is in the *plural number*; as, The *dogs* growled.

Most nouns form their plurals by adding *s* to the singular; as,

tree, trees; boy, boys; teacher, teachers; card, cards

When a noun ends with *s*, *x*, *sh*, or with some letter which does not unite well with an *s*, the letters *es* are added to the singular; as,

dress, dresses; class, classes; gas, gases; tax, taxes;
match, matches; fish, fishes; dish, dishes.

NOTE. Pronounce these words, and observe how difficult it is to pronounce them with an *s* ending.

Sometimes the last letter of the noun in the singular is changed before the ending *s* or *es* of the plural.

1. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change the *y* to *i* and add *es*; as,

penny, pennies; lady, ladies; city, cities

NOTE. Other nouns ending in *y* follow the general usage by adding *s* only; as, *valley, valleys; chimney, chimneys; money, moneys; donkey, donkeys; monkey, monkeys.*

2. When the noun ends in *o* preceded by a consonant, the plural is usually formed by adding *es*; as,

buffalo	buffaloes	tomato	tomatoes
echo	echoes	hero	heroes
potato	potatoes	negro	negroes
cargo	cargoes	mosquito	mosquitoes
tornado	tornadoes	volcano	volcanoes
	motto	mottoes	

3. Some nouns ending in *o* preceded by a consonant, and all nouns ending in *o* preceded by a vowel, add *s* to the singular; as,

alto, altos	banjo, banjos	canto, cantos
chromo, chromos	domino, dominos	halo, halos
piano, pianos	solo, solos	cameo, cameos
curio, curios	portfolio, portfolios	

4. Some nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form their plurals by changing *f* to *v* and adding *es*; as,

wife, wives	loaf, loaves	beef, beeves
calf, calves	elf, elves	knife, knives
life, lives	loaf, loaves	self, selves
shelf, shelves	sheaf, sheaves	thief, thieves
wolf, wolves	wharf, wharves	

NOTE. Other nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form their plurals regularly; as, *chief, chiefs; gulf, gulfs; safe, safes; fife, fifes; staff, staffs* (or *staves*).

EXERCISE

I. Form the plurals of the following nouns:

witch, carriage, volcano, shelf, motto, duty, alley,
watch, thief, chief, church, glass, map, table, story,
tornado, thrush, trolley, piano, hero, key, monkey,
money, life, gulf, staff, wharf, valley, folly, glory

II. Write a list of twelve nouns, then write the plural of each noun. Let your list contain nouns forming their plurals in the different ways given in the rules on page 74.

45. Other Ways of Forming the Plural

Some nouns form their plurals by changing the vowel or vowels within the word; as,

foot, feet	man, men	tooth, teeth
goose, geese	mouse, mice	woman, women

A few nouns keep in the plural the old Saxon ending *en*; as, child, children ox, oxen

A few nouns have the same form in the singular and plural; as,

deer, sheep, swine, trout, salmon, Chinese, heathen,
shad, cannon, cattle

Some nouns have two plurals; as,

1. { The *pennies* rolled on the street.
 { This book cost six *pence*.

2. { The *cloths* may be forwarded for examinations.
 { Her *clothes* were well made.
3. { I have six *brothers* at home.
 { The *brethren* of the church could not agree on baptism.

Some nouns are used only in the singular number; as,
 peace, gold, wheat, pride, wisdom, rice, whiteness

NOTE. These are chiefly words whose meanings do not permit the plural idea. Names (1) of abstract ideas or qualities, (2) of metals, (3) of scenes, (4) of arts, belong to this class.

Some nouns are plural in form, but keep the meaning of the singular number; as,

news, measles, mathematics, politics, gallows, economics, civics, gymnastics

Some nouns are used only with the plural meaning; as,

scissors, spectacles, ashes, oats, eaves, proceeds, tongs, trousers, shears, scales, dregs, victuals, annals, thanks, billiards

A few nouns of plural form are used either as singular or as plural nouns; as,

athletics, statistics, riches, tidings

Compound nouns form their plural in three different ways:

(a) Like simple nouns; as,

handful	handfuls
handkerchief	handkerchiefs
fisherman	fishermen
brigadier-general	brigadier-generals
forget-me-not	forget-me-nots
knight-errant	knight-errants

(b) By making the main word plural; as,

father-in-law	fathers-in-law
passer-by	passers-by
commander-in-chief	commanders-in-chief
man-of-war	men-of-war
hanger-on	hangers-on

(c) By making both parts of the compound noun plural; as,

man-servant	men-servants
Knight-templar	Knights-templars
man-teacher	men-teachers

Proper names with titles may form their plurals in either of two ways:

Miss Robinson	{ The Misses Robinson
	{ The Miss Robinsons
Mr. Robinson	{ The Messrs. Robinson
	{ The Mr. Robinsons
Dr. Robinson	{ The Drs. Robinson
	{ The Dr. Robinsons

Good usage seems to favor the plural form given first in each of these cases.

Letters of the alphabet, figures, and symbols used merely as words form their plurals by adding *apostrophe* (') and *s*; as,

Dot your *i*'s and cross your *t*'s.
Mind your *p*'s and *q*'s.
Add all the *6*'s, *7*'s, and *8*'s.
Write more distinctly your *+*'s and *-*'s.
Do not use too many *and*'s and *if*'s.

Certain foreign nouns retain their foreign plurals; as,

alumnus	alumni	phenomenon	phenomena
alumna	alumnæ	vertebra	vertebræ
analysis	analyses	parenthesis	parentheses
oasis	oases	crisis	crises
radius	radii	fungus	fungi
	appendix	appendices	

NOTE. We should consult the dictionary when we are in doubt as to the proper plural of a word.

EXERCISE

Write sentences containing the plural forms of the following words. Which of the words have the same form for the singular and the plural?

table	desk	potato	Miss Smith
ink	half	child	tax
dish	mouse	Mr. Long	Mrs. Long
tooth	loaf	analysis	cattle
alumnus	berry	scissors	radius

46. Gender of Nouns

Some nouns name male beings; as, *man, boy, James*. Other nouns name female beings; as, *woman, girl, Elizabeth*.

This distinction between nouns which denote sex is called **gender**.

A noun which names a male being is of the *masculine* gender; as, king, lord, Charles, lion

A noun which names a female being is of the *feminine* gender; as, queen, lady, Mary, lioness

A noun naming a person or an animal, without denoting sex, is said to be of *indeterminate* gender; as,

dog, sheep, cousin, friend, child, teacher

A noun which names an object which is neither male nor female is of the *neuter* gender; as,

house, stone, book, sky, ink

EXERCISE

Copy each of the following nouns and write its gender:

sir, fish, Sarah, desk, child, ice, Miss Jameson, dog,
horse, grass, William, Mr. White, glass, companion,
Indian, arrow, hat, fire, bird, summer, hope, dark-
ness, crowd, Mrs. Jones

47. Three Ways of Denoting Gender

Observe these pairs of words:

- | | |
|----------------|--------------|
| 1. lion | lioness |
| 2. king | queen |
| 3. man-servant | maid-servant |

1. In the first pair of words, the word *lioness* is formed by adding *ess* to the word *lion* to denote the female lion. Other words which are thus changed are:

duke, duchess	emperor, empress
master, mistress	actor, actress
host, hostess	patron, patroness
postmaster, postmistress	Jew, Jewess

Some nouns show gender by the addition of other endings; as,

hero, heroine	widow, widower
czar, czarina	executor, executrix

2. In the second pair, different words are used to show the gender; as, *king, queen*. Other examples are:

boy, girl	man, woman	brother, sister
uncle, aunt	nephew, niece	buck, doe
	father, mother	

3. In the third pair of words, part of the compound word is changed; as, *man-servant, maid-servant*. Other examples are:

milkman, milkmaid	bridegroom, bride
landlord, landlady	

The gender of nouns may be shown in three different ways: (1) by different endings; (2) by different words; (3) by different compounds.

EXERCISE

I. *Name the gender of each of the following nouns:*

tiger, bride, monk, lad, hart, poet, giant, grand-father, brother-in-law, king, doe, goose, hen, stag, buck, uncle, alumna, animal, speaker

II. *In place of the nouns of masculine gender in the preceding list, write the corresponding feminine nouns. In place of the nouns of feminine gender, write the corresponding masculine nouns.*

48. Case of Nouns

The boy reads well.
The horse kicked the boy.
The boy's dog is a collie.

Observe that the word *boy* in these different sentences bears different relations to the other words in the sentences.

In the first sentence, the word *boy* denotes the person who is doing something; in the second sentence, *boy* denotes the person to whom something is done; and in the third sentence, the word *boy's* shows by its form that the boy owns something. In the first two sentences, the word *boy* has the same form; in the third, it becomes *boy's*.

These sentences show three important ways in which nouns may be related to other words in sentences.

The relation which a noun bears to some other word or words in the sentence is called its case.

49. The Nominative Case of Nouns

1. The *subject* of a verb is in the *nominative case*; as,
Columbus discovered America.

The noun *Columbus* is in the *nominative case*.

2. A noun which is used as a predicate after a predicate verb and which means the same person or thing named by the subject, is, like the subject, in the *nominative case*; as,

Lincoln was a great *President*.

In this sentence, the predicate noun *President* refers to the subject substantive *Lincoln*, and is in the same case.

A noun so used is called a *predicate nominative*; as,
Thomas Edison is a great *inventor*.

The hero of the book was named *David Copperfield*.

In each of the preceding sentences the predicate nominative refers to the person or thing named by the subject.

3. A noun that names a person or thing addressed is in the *nominative case*; as,

James, bring me the book.

Mr. Chairman, I rise to a point of order.

Fido, begone.

4. A noun used as an *exclamation* is called a *nominative of exclamation*; as,

A horse! a horse! my kingdom for a horse!

Fire! fire! the city is burning!

A noun may be used in the nominative case as:

- (1) Subject of a verb.
- (2) Predicate nominative.
- (3) Nominative of address.
- (4) Nominative of exclamation.

EXERCISE

I. *Pick out the nouns in each of the following sentences and tell how each one is used in the nominative case:*

1. The boats were damaged.
2. The rude wind is singing.
3. Brisk talkers are generally slow thinkers.
4. Lead, kindly light.
5. O sleep! it is a gentle thing.
6. The pale stars are gone.
7. Henry was chosen secretary.
8. Alice, you may remain a few moments.
9. The rapids! The rapids! the rapids are before us!

II. Write ten sentences to illustrate the different ways in which a noun may be used in the nominative case.

50. The Accusative Case of Nouns

A noun or a pronoun is frequently used to complete a verb, by denoting the *receiver* of an action or a feeling expressed by the verb. We have learned that a noun or a pronoun so used is called a *direct object*; as,

John struck the *ball*.

The frost killed our *dahlias*.

Mary wrote her *lesson*.

The direct object of a verb is in the *accusative case*. Why is each italicized noun in the preceding sentences in the accusative case?

The principal noun or pronoun of a prepositional phrase is also in the accusative case. Point out the principal noun or pronoun of each prepositional phrase in the following sentences, and tell why each is in the accusative case:

A flag *of many colors* hung *from the ceiling*.

We came to a farmer's house and asked *for a glass of buttermilk*.

A noun used as the direct object of a verb is in the *accusative case*.

A noun used with a preposition is in the accusative case.

51. The Dative Case of Nouns

Some verbs take, in addition to their direct objects, other objects which are called *indirect objects*.

Give your *brother* the *ball*.

In this sentence, the direct object of the verb *give* is the word *ball*. The indirect object of the verb is the word *brother*. The sentence means, "Give the ball to your brother." We call *brother* the indirect object, because *brother* denotes not the thing given, but the person *to whom* something is given.

The direct object of a verb tells whom or what the action expressed by the verb affects.

The indirect object of a verb tells *toward* whom or what, or *for* whom or what the action expressed by the verb is directed.

The preposition *to* or *for* may always be supplied before the indirect object of a verb.

The indirect object of a transitive verb is in the dative case.

TO THE TEACHER. The terms *accusative case* and *dative case* are used in preference to *objective case* because the term *objective case* does not consistently cover all the constructions to which it has generally been applied. In these sentences, for instance, the term *objective case* cannot logically be applied to the constructions italicized; the nouns are not used as *objects*.

- (1) John walked a *mile* (accusative).
- (2) We wish *John* to be a lawyer (accusative).
- (3) Freda loaned *Caroline* a hat (dative).
- (4) Father bought *me* a new wheel (dative).

A preposition cannot properly be said to take an object. Hence a noun used with a preposition cannot be said, logically, to be in the *objective case*.

EXERCISE

I. *Which of the nouns and pronouns in the following sentences are direct objects of verbs? Which are indirect objects? Which are used with prepositions? In what case is each noun or pronoun?*

1. An hour's ride by train brought us into Edinburgh.
2. Sir Launfal gave the leper a crust of bread.
3. Carlyle wrote Emerson delightful letters.
4. The teacher promised William the position.
5. The company offered the settlers new territory.
6. A sister of father's visited us.
7. I bring you tidings of great joy.
8. Forgive us our sins!
9. Fire! Fire! Our house is on fire.
10. The firm sold us a large order of goods.
11. Please send me an early reply.
12. This measure of precaution I took.
13. Walter Scott wrote *Ivanhoe*.

II. *Give the case of each noun and pronoun in the following sentences:*

1. De Quincey was heir to a large sum of money.
2. Bend to your oars, my faithful crew.
3. The Dolphin, a large steamer, was wrecked.
4. We went aboard the battleship.
5. Miss Pratt gave uncle a touch on the elbow.
6. The mayor with an air of pride showed the party the beautiful parts of the city.
7. Lincoln was once a mere rail-splitter; nevertheless he became a great president.
8. Suddenly an automobile dashed into sight only a few rods before our train.

52. The Genitive Case of Nouns

Nouns of the possessive form used to show possession, or source, or connection, are said to be in the *genitive case*; as,

The *boys'* marbles are fine agates.

The *dog's* ears are glossy.

The possessive forms above show possession.

The *sun's* rays are hot.

The *earth's* fruitfulness is gone.

The possessive forms above denote *source*, or connection, not possession.

The *war's* delay will result in ill.

The *day's* journey was now completed.

The possessive forms above denote, not possession, but connection with the things named by the nouns which they modify.

The possessive form of a noun used to modify the meaning of another noun denoting a different person or thing, is in the *genitive case*.

TO THE TEACHER. The term *genitive case* is used in preference to *possessive case* because the term *possessive case* is not broad enough to cover the constructions to which it has generally been applied.

1. A noun in the singular number is usually given its genitive case form by adding an *apostrophe and s* ('s) to the common form; as,

John's lessons were difficult.

The *dog's* master was kind.

2. Plural nouns which end in *s* are given their genitive case forms by adding an *apostrophe* (') only; as,

The *girls'* picnic lasted all day.

The *pirates'* cave was in Devonshire.

The *ladies'* wraps were taken to the check room.

3. Plural nouns which do not end in *s* form their genitives by adding both the *apostrophe and s* ('s); as,

The *men's* games will begin at three o'clock.

Children's books are sold on the first floor.

The *deer's* horns were branching.

4. The genitive case forms of compound nouns are made by adding the 's or merely the *apostrophe* (') to the last part of the compound; as,

father-in-law's; commanders-in-chief's; bricklayer's;
boat club's

5. Singular nouns which end in *s* or in an *s* sound may or may not add an *s* to show the genitive case. The usage of the best writers to-day is favorable to the addition of the 's, especially if the word is short; as,

James, James's; Keats, Keats's; Dickens, Dickens's

6. Nouns are sometimes combined to denote joint ownership; as, *Duncan and Smith*. Such a compound is made genitive by adding 's to the last name; as,

Johnson, White, and Henleys' store

Mason and Dixon's line

7. If we desire to show separate ownership, we should add 's to each name; as,

Duncan's and *Smith's* books were burned.

Duncan's books and *Smith's* books were burned.

NOTE. Ideas of connection, usually denoted by the genitive, are sometimes indicated by a phrase beginning with *of*. This makes an expression less awkward than the usual form with 's. For example, *The wanderings of Æneas* sounds better than *Æneas's wanderings*.

Sometimes the genitive form follows the preposition; as,

A friend *of mother's* visited us to-day.

EXERCISE

I. *Write the genitive case forms of each of the following words. Write after each genitive the name of the thing owned; as, cat, cat's paws.*

1. cat, horse, lion, bird, turkey, monkey, man, dog, wolf.
2. boys, girls, logs, birds, lions, poets, dukes, kings.
3. men, women, children, oxen, mice, deer, sheep.
4. fishermen, mother-in-law, blackbird, firemen, lawnmower, flintlock, lieutenant-general, commander-in-chief.
5. Mr. Jones, Mrs. Briggs, Mr. Sachs, Burns, Mathews, Cassius, Dr. Morris, Professor Swithers.

II. *Write the proper forms for the genitive nouns in the following sentences:*

1. Johnson and Jackson office was moved.
2. Smith and Brown library was sold.
3. White and Robinson friends took opposite sides.
4. I like to read Thackeray novels.
5. Longfellow and Whittier poems are simple in style.
6. Have you read Webster and Calhoun speeches?

53. The Case of Nouns Used in Apposition

An appositive noun is in the same case as the noun which it explains or modifies; as,

Our general, *Stonewall Jackson*, was a fearless, brave leader.

The noun *general* is in the nominative case, because it is used as the subject of the sentence. The name *Stonewall Jackson* is also in the nominative case because it is in apposition with *general*.

I took the dog to my friend, *John Williams*.

The noun *friend* is in the accusative case, because it is used with the preposition *to*. *John Williams* is also in the accusative case because it is in apposition with *friend*.

My brother *John's* bicycle was stolen.

The noun *brother* is in the genitive case, because it names the person who owned the bicycle. *John's*, the appositive, is also in the genitive case.

NOTE. The genitive ending 's is added to the appositive noun and not to the noun with which it is in apposition.

EXERCISE

Pick out the appositive nouns in the following sentences. Tell the case of each appositive, and tell what word it modifies.

1. Our captain, Frank Latham, kicked two goals.
2. We went hunting Saturday, James and I.
3. Fulton, the inventor of the steamboat, died a poor man.
4. The prize was won by our captain, George Franklin.
5. I have your cousin Frank's book.
6. Milton, the great English poet, was blind.
7. His regiment, the one hundred and tenth Illinois, carried the field.
8. The president used the gavel, a gift from his state.

54. Person of Nouns and Pronouns

The use of a noun or a pronoun to denote a *person speaking*, a *person* or a *thing spoken to*, or a *person* or a *thing spoken of*, is called *person*. Thus,

Person Speaking :

I, Donald Walker, affirm this to be true.

Person Spoken To :

You, William, are the culprit.

Person and Thing Spoken Of :

He, Frank Baker, gave it, the dog, away.

(1) A noun or a pronoun used to denote a *speaker*, is said to be of the *first person*.

(2) A noun or a pronoun used to denote a *person* or a *thing spoken to*, is said to be of the *second person*.

(3) A noun or a pronoun used to denote a *person* or a *thing spoken of*, is said to be of the *third person*.

TO THE TEACHER. The term *person* used to denote a grammatical property is generally confusing to pupils. That it does not mean *person* in the ordinary sense of the word *person* to denote people, should be carefully explained.

55. Declension of Nouns

The noun, though it has four case-uses, has only two distinct case-forms. A noun used in the nominative case, in the accusative case, or in the dative case, undergoes no change in form to show these

differences in relation. Hence we may say that a noun used in any of these cases has a *common case-form*. A noun used in the genitive case has a different form from the one which is common to the nominative, accusative, and dative case-uses. Hence we call the second form the *genitive-case form*.

Observe the declension of the following noun, *boy*:

	<i>Singular Number</i>	<i>Plural Number</i>
Common Form	boy	boys
Genitive Form	boy's	boys'

56. Parsing of Nouns

We have learned certain facts about nouns:

1. The kinds: *common, proper, abstract, collective*.
2. The number: *singular, plural*.
3. The gender: *masculine, feminine, and neuter*.
4. The case: *nominative, accusative, dative, and genitive*.
5. The uses: *subject, predicate, substantive, object, indirect object, etc.*

When we state the important facts about a noun in this way, we parse the noun.

Charles drove the horses along the street.

In this sentence the nouns are parsed thus:

<i>Noun</i>	<i>Kind</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>Case</i>	<i>Use in sentence</i>
<i>Charles</i>	proper	singular	masculine	nominative	subject of sentence
<i>horses</i>	common	plural	indeterminate	accusative	direct object of verb
<i>street</i>	common	singular	neuter	accusative	with a preposition

EXERCISE

Parse the nouns of the following sentences:

1. The horse, Hamiltonian, won the race.
2. The road led over the mountains.
3. The paths of glory lead but to the grave.
4. Mark Twain's *Tom Sawyer* is a popular book among boys.
5. The queen of the nation loved all her people.
6. The class liked to read Shakespeare.
7. The girls chose a captain for the basket-ball team.
8. The English ships defeated the Spanish Armada during the reign of Elizabeth.

57. Review Questions on Nouns

What is a noun? Give an example. What kinds of nouns are there? Name an example of each kind. Define number, gender, case. How many kinds of number are there? How many kinds of gender are there? Define and illustrate masculine, feminine, and neuter gender. How many kinds of case are there? Define and illustrate each. Give the number of each of the following nouns: *men, children, boy, book, dresses, town, automobile, scissors, stone, rooms, oxen, fishes, tidings*. How do most nouns form their plural number? How do nouns ending in *y* form their plural number? Give the gender of each of the nouns named in the list given in Exercise I, Sec. 47. Give the gender of each of the following nouns: *girl, duchess, king, emperor, actress, sir, madame, uncle, hero, nun*. For each noun in Exercise I, Sec. 47, write the noun of the opposite gender. Name the ways in which the genitive case of nouns is formed. What is meant by the direct object; the predicate nominative; the indirect object? Illustrate. Define

inflection. Name one way in which inflection of a noun may be shown. In what three ways is gender shown? What do we mean by an appositive noun? Name four ways in which a noun or a pronoun may be in the nominative case. Two ways in which a noun or a pronoun may be in the accusative case. Two ways in which a noun or a pronoun may be in the dative case. In the genitive case.

How many case-forms does the noun have to show its case-uses? Name these case-forms. How may each case-form be recognized? The noun is declined to show what other property? Decline the nouns, *girl, horse, lady, man, goose, mice, child*. What important facts must we tell about a noun when we parse it? In what order do we tell these important facts? Parse four nouns which you have written in sentences of your own. Let each noun which you parse be used in a different way in the sentence.

58. Classes of Pronouns

Often we find it convenient to indicate a person or a thing without using the name of the person or the thing. A word so used instead of a noun is called a pronoun.

Pronouns, like nouns, are used in different ways. Hence they are divided into different classes. The classes of pronouns are these:

- | | |
|---|---|
| I. Personal Pronouns | { I, thou, he, she, it, we, you,
they, me, him, her, us, them. |
| II. Intensive Pronouns | { myself, yourself, himself, herself, |
| III. Reflexive Pronouns | { itself, ourselves, themselves. |
| IV. Demonstrative Pronouns: this, that, these, those. | |

V. Indefinite Pronouns { each, every, either, neither,
both, all, few, some, several,
many, none, everybody, etc.

VI. Possessive Pronouns { mine, ours, yours, his, hers,
theirs, whose.

VII. Identifying Pronoun: same.

VIII. Reciprocal Pronouns: each other, one another.

IX. Relative Pronouns: who, which, what, that.

X. Interrogative Pronouns: who, which, what.

NOTE. The demonstrative pronouns, some of the indefinite pronouns, and the identifying pronoun *same* may be used either as pronouns or as adjectives. Such words are called *pronominals*.

59. Personal Pronouns

Each of the following sentences has a pronoun for its subject:

I have a book.

He has a book.

You have a book.

It has a tail.

Each of these words, *I*, *you*, *he*, *it*, refers to a different person or thing. *I* denotes the person who *speaks*; *you* the person *spoken to*; *he* and *it* the persons or things *spoken of*.

Note these different forms of the personal pronouns.

(1) Pronouns which denote the speaker are of the *first person*: *I*, *me*, *we*, *us*, etc.

(2) Pronouns which denote the person or thing spoken to are of the *second person*: *thou*, *you*, *ye*, etc.

(3) Pronouns which denote the person or thing spoken of are of the *third person*: *he*, *she*, *it*, *they*, etc.

Pronouns which show by their forms whether they are of the first, the second, or the third person are called personal pronouns.

60. Declension of Personal Pronouns

Observe the changes in the forms of the following personal pronouns and learn these forms.

Most personal pronouns have two distinct case-forms, one for the *nominative*, and the other for the *accusative* and *dative* uses. Since the form for the accusative and the dative uses is the same, we call it the *accusative-dative* form.

First Person

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Nominative	I	we
Accusative-Dative	me	us

Second Person

Nominative	you or thou	you
Accusative-Dative	you or thee	you

Third Person

Nominative	he, she, it	they
Accusative-Dative	him, her, it	them

This change in the form of pronouns to show their different meanings and uses is called declension of pronouns.

The following forms of the personal pronoun of the *second* person are seldom used: *thou, thee, ye*. These

words may be found in the Bible, in scriptural language, and in poetry.

The pronoun *it* is sometimes used to refer to nouns of indeterminate gender; as,

The child was lost in the city. *It* was found late in the evening.

TO THE TEACHER. The words *my, your, our, their, its*, very generally classed as pronouns are, in reality, not pronouns but adjectives. They are always used before nouns which they limit in meaning, as other adjectives do. They never have substantive uses.

EXERCISE

I. *Name the personal pronouns in the following sentences. Tell the case, number, and gender of each pronoun.*

1. I told Tom, but he refused to go.
2. Mary said that she did not know the man's name.
3. My country, 'tis of thee,
Sweet land of Liberty,
Of thee I sing.
4. Brutus helped to kill Cæsar because he believed Cæsar was too ambitious.
5. Give me liberty or give me death.
6. David is a friend to us.
7. They bought the house and sold it the same day.
8. We go to our school past their house.

II. *Pick out the nouns in the sentences given above and tell the kind, number, gender, and case of each.*

61. Agreement of the Antecedent

Observe this sentence:

Mr. Smith received the automobile which he had ordered.

When the antecedent, expressed or understood, is in the singular number, the pronoun must be in the singular number. When the antecedent is in the plural number, the pronoun must be in the plural number; as,

Each *girl* prepared the lesson assigned *her*.

The *citizens* refused to give up the rights which belonged to *them*.

The pronoun must also be of the same gender as the antecedent, expressed or understood; as,

┌
Maurice said that *he* would go.

└
Mary replied that *she* didn't care.

The pronoun must be of the same person as the antecedent, expressed or understood; as,

┌
I built *me* a little house.

└
Mary, *you* are late to-day.

┌
Frank asked that *he* might be excused.

The pronouns *he* and *him* are used to refer to antecedents of the third person, singular number, and indeterminate gender; as,

If *anyone* objects let *him* speak now.

A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in number, gender, and person.

EXERCISE

Give the antecedent of each pronoun used in Exercise I on page 96.

62. Intensive and Reflexive Pronouns

Certain pronouns end in *self*, and may be called *compound personal pronouns*.

1. The president *himself* wrote the letter.
The queen *herself* was present.
You *yourself* know that this is true.

In this group, *himself*, *herself*, *yourself* simply emphasize the words *president*, *queen*, and *you* and make the meaning in each case more clear. In each sentence, the pronoun ending in *self* intensifies the meaning of the noun or pronoun with which it is used, and is called an *intensive pronoun*.

2. John deceived *himself*.
May voted for *herself*.
They elected *themselves* officers of the convention.

In this group *himself* is the object of the verb *deceived*; *herself* is the object of the preposition *for*; *themselves* is the object of the verb *elected*. In each of these three sentences, the pronoun denotes the same person or persons who are named by the subject. In this sense the pronouns become reflexive and are called *reflexive pronouns*.

Intensive pronouns may be used to *intensify* or *emphasize* the meaning of nouns or pronouns.

Reflexive pronouns used as the objects of transitive verbs or used with prepositions, refer to the same person or thing as the subject.

The following are the intensive and the reflexive pronouns:

myself, first person, singular

ourselves, first person, plural

yourself, *thyself*, second person, singular

yourselves, second person, plural

himself, *herself*, *itself*, third person, singular

themselves, third person, plural

one's self, third person, singular

NOTE. *Hissself* and *theirselves* are not correct.

The *intensive pronoun* is sometimes used without a noun or pronoun before it; as,

To *thyself* be true.

EXERCISE

In the following sentences, point out the intensive pronouns and the reflexive pronouns:

1. I myself am responsible for the act.
2. The travelers found themselves in a dark forest.
3. The passenger sat by himself in the corner.
4. You yourself are invited.
5. Each boy is to go by himself.
6. We may not know ourselves as well as others know us.
7. The prisoner threw himself from the window.
8. I am not quite certain of that myself.
9. The visitors were presented to the Pope himself.
10. The captain shouted, "Save yourselves."

63. Demonstrative Pronouns

This is Christmas.

That was John.

These are my books.

Those are my tools.

You will observe that the words *this*, *these*, *that*, and *those*, are here used as substantives; that is, they are used as subjects of predicate verbs. We might say,

1. *To-day* is Christmas.

1. *They* are my friends.

(or)

(or)

2. *This* is Christmas.

2. *These* are my friends.

1. The *leader* was John

(or)

2. *That* was John.

This, *these*, *that*, or *those* is used in the second sentence of each group preceding in place of the italicized noun or pronoun of the sentence above it. Because each of these pronouns points out definitely some person or thing understood, it is called a *demonstrative pronoun*.

The word *demonstrative* came originally from a Latin word which means *to point out*.

Demonstrative pronouns point out persons or things.

The demonstrative pronouns are the following:

Singular: *this*, *that*

Plural: *these*, *those*

The words *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those* may be used not only as *pronouns* but also as *adjectives*.

EXERCISE

I. *In the following sentences supply the proper form of this or these. Remember that this refers to a person or object near at hand.*

1. — are my books.
2. Do — suit you as well as those?
3. Is — the person you named?
4. — is the shortest way.
5. Boys, is — the best you can do?
6. Do you like — kind of apples?
7. — sort of peaches grows in Michigan?
8. — kinds of grain belong to the grass family.

II. *In each of the following sentences, supply the proper form of that or this. Remember that that refers to a person or object at some distance.*

1. — is my book.
2. Is — the truth?
3. Are — my books?
4. Do — suit you as well as these?
5. — are hard questions.
6. Do you like — kinds of oranges?
7. Do you see — hill in the distance?

64. Indefinite Pronouns

The indefinite pronouns are:

all, each, every one, either, neither, several, few, some, such, both, any, much, many, more, none, other, another, any one, nobody, everybody, one, some one, no one, etc.

Examples

All voted for the change of rules.

Neither of the brothers would consent.

Both of the horses were killed in battle.

Everybody will be there.

These words, which here stand for names, point out persons or things indefinitely, and hence are called *indefinite pronouns*. Like the demonstrative words, they may be used either as pronouns or as adjectives.

NOTE. When words like these are used as adjectives, they are followed by the nouns they modify; as,

all men; *both* brothers; *few* people; *each* pupil

We observe that some indefinite pronouns are compound words, and are sometimes written together; as,
anybody, everybody

The indefinite pronouns which may be inflected are:

(1) *one*, which has the genitive form *one's* and a plural form *ones*; as,

It is *one's* duty to vote.

These books are not the *ones* I asked for.

(2) *other* and its compounds, which have the genitive form *other's* and the plural form *others*; as,

John and James criticised each *other's* lessons.

I like the *others* better than these.

(3) the compounds of *body*, which have the genitive form *body's*; as,

What is *everybody's* business is *nobody's* business.

(4) the compounds of *else*, which have the genitive form *else's*; as,

This is somebody *else's* hat.

EXERCISE

Pick out the demonstrative and the indefinite pronouns in the following sentences. Explain the use of each pronoun in each sentence.

1. All followed him several paces to the door.
2. This one waited for the morning, as the soldiers went from one part of the field to another.
3. "Look at that," said the gentleman.
4. And they went out, both of them into the field.
5. Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon them.
6. These, in the robings of glory,
Those in the gloom of defeat,
All, with the battle blood gory,
In the dusk of eternity meet.
7. The herald then found each in his place.
8. Only a few find perfect happiness.
9. He was a great favorite among all in the village.
10. Neither showed the least disposition to retreat.

65. Possessive, Identifying, and Reciprocal Pronouns

The words *mine*, *ours*, *yours*, *his*, *hers*, and *theirs*, show possession by their forms. When they are used in place of nouns, as subjects or objects of verbs, or with prepositions, they are called *possessive pronouns*; as,

Mine is lost.
Yours is the larger piece.
His was the best plan of all.
I admire *hers* more than *yours*.
The boys gave all *theirs* to me.

In all these sentences, the italicized words are used as possessive pronouns.

The word *same*, when used in place of a noun, as subject or object, or with a preposition, is called an *identifying pronoun*, as,

The *same* may be said of all good citizens.

I have already mentioned the *same* to the other members.

The words *each other* and *one another* are called *reciprocal pronouns*. They are so called because they denote that two persons or things are in reciprocal relation; as,

Let us love *one another*.

The children were quarreling with *each other* over the first move.

The word *reciprocal* means *mutual* or *interchangeable*.

EXERCISE

Tell which italicized pronouns in the following sentences are possessive pronouns. Which are identifying pronouns? Which are reciprocal pronouns?

1. *Yours* is a high ambition.
2. I wish the *same* for all.
3. He gave *ours* to mother.
4. Do you like *mine* as well as *hers*?

5. I do not approve of *theirs*, but I like *yours* and *ours* much better.

6. *His* was an easy task; *mine* was difficult.

7. They wished *each other* a merry Christmas.

8. *Mine* is the *same* as *yours*.

9. The maddened giants slew *one another*.

66. Relative Pronouns

Let us examine the sentence:

John ate the apple *which* his sister gave him.

We observe that the word *which* connects the two clauses by introducing the subordinate clause and referring to a noun in the preceding clause. *Which* is a pronoun referring to its antecedent *apple* in the principal clause.

The word *which* is called a *relative pronoun*, because it shows the *relation* between its antecedent *apple* and the clause which it introduces.

A **relative pronoun** is a pronoun which connects two clauses and which refers to a noun or a pronoun in the preceding clause.

The common relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *what*, *that*.

The word *as* is used as a relative pronoun after the words *such*, *many*, and *same*; as,

As many *as* came were fed.

Such *as* I have, I give unto thee.

The word *but* is sometimes used as a relative pronoun; as,

There was not one *but* would have died for the cause. [*who* would not have died, etc.]

The pronoun *who* is used to refer to persons. *Who* is also used to refer to animals which are called by proper names; as,

Wolf, who stood in fear of Dame Van Winkle, barked and fled.

The relative pronouns *that* and *as* may be used to refer to either persons or things. *What* and *which* are used to refer to things.

Observe the declension of the relative pronoun:

	<i>Singular and Plural</i>
Nominative	who
Accusative-Dative	whom

Note that the singular and the plural are the same.

The relative pronouns *that*, *which*, and *what* are not declined.

The relative pronoun does not change its form to show the person, though it agrees with its antecedent in person; as,

he *who*, I *who*, you *who*, they *who*

The relative pronoun is sometimes not expressed but is simply understood; as,

Sir Bedivere hid the sword Arthur gave him.

Here the relative pronoun *which* is omitted.

He is the man we saw yesterday.

Here the relative pronoun *whom* is omitted.

The case of the relative pronoun is determined by its use in the clause which it introduces, not by the case of its antecedent; as,

I know the man whom we just met.

The relative pronoun *whom* is in the accusative case, because it is the object of the verb *met*, not because its antecedent is in the accusative case.

EXERCISE

I. *Name the relative pronouns in the following sentences. Tell their number, gender, person, and case. Name the antecedent of each. In sentences where the relative is not expressed, supply it.*

1. The room in which he sat was very still.
2. He that is honest is most respected.
3. Who struck the match, let him come forth.
4. Once I saw what looked like a forest fire.
5. The girl whom they called Jane acted that part.
6. Blessed is the man in whom there is no deceit.
7. Mr. White was the lawyer upon whom they relied.
8. Jo said, "I sold only what was my own."
9. The loveliest, saddest bird I ever saw was a chickadee who had lost his mate.

II. *In each of the following sentences, supply a suitable relative pronoun:*

1. It gilded the features of the Indians — sat about the camp-fire.
2. John is the boy — the manager likes best.
3. In the morning they are like grass — groweth up.
4. He broke through the snow bank — had piled up against the rude door.

5. He spoke to every man — he met.
6. Victoria was the queen to — the English people owe much.

67. Uses of *What*

I know *what* you mean.

What you say is true.

In these sentences, the antecedent of the relative pronoun is not expressed, but merely implied. We might say,

I know that which you mean.

That which you say is true.

In each of these sentences, *that* is the antecedent and *which* is the relative pronoun.

The relative pronoun *what* is always equivalent to the two words *that which*.

EXERCISE

I. In each of the following sentences, supply the relative pronoun which has been omitted. Tell whether the pronoun which you have supplied in each sentence is subject or object in its clause.

1. The burglar — the officer arrested has escaped.
2. The boy — you wish to see is not here.
3. He is a man — everybody respects.
4. Frances is a friend — you can rely upon.
5. It was my aunt — we met at the station.
6. A young man — they called Franklin was first in his class.

II. Supply the proper form *am, is, are, was, were* in each of the following sentences:

1. The man who ——— happy makes others happy.
2. I, who ——— president of the class, introduced the speaker.
3. You who ——— present are invited to the lecture.
4. I went with some friends who ——— good hunters.
5. They elected the boy who ——— the best student.
6. The teacher did not know who ——— the guilty boys.

68. Interrogative Pronouns

Who wrote this poem?

Which do you like best?

What did the burglar take?

Whom did the team elect?

We observe that the sentences above are interrogative sentences introduced by the pronouns *who, which, what*. These pronouns, when used in this way, are called *interrogative pronouns*.

The pronoun *whose* when used in asking a question, is called an *interrogative possessive pronoun*; as,

Whose is the best this time?

The interrogative pronouns *who* and *which* are used to refer to persons, *which* is used to refer to persons and things, and *what* is used to refer to things only.

The forms of the words *who, which, what*, when used as interrogative pronouns, are the same as when used as relative pronouns. See page 106.

An interrogative pronoun is a pronoun which is used in asking a question.

EXERCISE

Supply the proper form of who in the following sentences:

1. — is there?
2. To — did you write?
3. — book is this?
4. — am I to believe?
5. From — did you hear that?
6. I do not know — to believe.
7. Do you know — that man is?
8. — do you suppose I am?
9. For — benefit was the play given?
10. Can you tell — they elected secretary?

69. Errors in the Uses of Personal Pronouns

Most personal pronouns, unlike nouns, have different forms for the nominative, accusative, and dative cases; as,

Personal Pronouns

Nominative Case-Forms

I	he
we	she
thou	they

Accusative-Dative Case-Forms

me	him
us	her
thee	them

It is necessary to keep in mind the relations of these pronouns to other words in the sentence, so that we may use the forms of the pronouns which properly show these relations.

Some of the common errors in the case of pronouns are illustrated by the following examples:

1. Frank told the story to *Robert* and *I*.

The sentence should read:

Frank told the story to *Robert* and *me*.

The pronoun *me* should be used, because, like the word *Robert*, it is in the accusative case, used with the preposition *to*.

2. Instead of saying : It is *me*. We should say : It is *I*.

It is *her*.

It is *she*.

It is *him*.

It is *he*.

I, *she*, and *he* used in the second group of sentences are the correct forms, because they are predicate pronouns and must be in the nominative case.

3. *Him* and *me* are going.

This sentence is incorrect. We should say:

He and *I* are going.

He and *I* are subjects of the verb, and must therefore have the nominative case form.

4. Aunt Mary liked sister better than *I*.

I is incorrect, because the pronoun following the words *better than* is the direct object of the verb *liked* understood. The sentence expanded would read: *Aunt Mary liked sister better than she liked me*. Hence the shortened sentence also should read:

Aunt Mary liked sister better than *me*.

5. She is taller than *me*.

Me is incorrect, because the pronoun following the word *than* is the subject of a clause understood. The

sentence expanded would read: *She is taller than I am.*
Hence the shortened sentence also should read:

She is taller than *I*.

6. Joe and *myself* went to the game.

This sentence should be:

Joe and *I* went to the game.

Pronouns ending in *self* cannot be used as subjects.
They may be used in an intensive way to emphasize
the subjects which they follow.

I, myself was present.

7. Eugene treated Harold and *myself*.

The horse belongs to Mary and *yourself*.

We should say:

Eugene treated Harold and *me*.

The horse belongs to Mary and *you*.

Pronouns ending in *self* may be used in the accusative case only when they are in apposition with objects, or when they mean the persons or things named in the subjects; as,

Harold addressed the king *himself*.

The horse belongs to you *yourself*.

John enjoyed *himself*.

The old man talked to *himself*.

EXERCISE

Supply proper forms of personal pronouns in the following sentences. Use pronouns of the first or second person.

1. The policeman allowed Frank and —— to enter.
2. Mary is more studious than ——
3. The team selected —— captain.
4. —— and —— took a tramp into the forest.
5. —— can run faster than ——
6. The class liked Jane better than ——
7. Everybody believed —— to be the best student.
8. I knew that it was ——
9. May Alice and —— do the errand for you?
10. Please let Alice and —— do the errand.

70. Errors in the Uses of Relative Pronouns

1. My friend, *who* you mentioned, has left town.

We should say:

My friend, *whom* you mentioned, has left town.

Whom is correct in this sentence, because it is the direct object of the verb *mentioned*, and must have the accusative case-form.

2. The boy to *who* I gave the book has lost it.

Who should be *whom*, because the pronoun is used with the preposition *to*, and must have the accusative case-form.

3. My brother, *whom* I thought would succeed, has failed.

We should say:

My brother, *who* I thought would succeed, has failed.

Who is correct, because it is the subject of the verb *would succeed* and not the object of the verb *thought*. The clause *I thought* is used parenthetically, as may be seen by reading the sentence with and without the clause.

EXERCISE

Supply the proper forms of the relative pronouns who, whoever, whosoever in the following sentences. Remember that the case of the relative pronoun is determined by its relation to other words in its clause, and not by its relation to any word outside of its clause.

1. John is the boy — they say saved the life of his companion.
2. The author — I admire most is Browning.
3. — will may come.
4. Let — wishes to play in this game come forward.
5. The man for — that house was built has recently died.
6. Burns, to — the Scots erected a fine monument, died in poverty.

71. Classes of Adjectives

Adjectives, like most other parts of speech, are used in different ways. Hence they are divided into classes and sub-classes, to denote their different uses. Every adjective falls into one of these two main divisions— (1) *descriptive adjectives*. (2) *limiting adjectives*. Each of these classes is divided into sub-classes.

Many adjectives show the qualities or conditions of the persons or things denoted by the nouns or pronouns which they modify; as,

The apples are *red*.

The *heavy* trunk fell with a bang.

The book is *interesting*.

In these sentences, the italicized words describe respectively, *apples*, *trunk*, *book*. Hence they are called *descriptive adjectives*.

Most adjectives are descriptive; as,

red, yellow, black, heavy, light, high, long, short, sweet,
sour, happy, proud, stingy, industrious, warm, cold

A descriptive adjective is an adjective which modifies a noun by describing persons or things.

Descriptive adjectives are divided into two classes:
proper adjectives and *common adjectives*.

Proper adjectives are formed from proper nouns; as,

We are proud of the *English* language.

The ship brought a load of *Italian* immigrants.

Our class has read three *Shakespearean* plays.

In these sentences, the words *English* (derived from *England*), *Italian* (derived from *Italy*), and *Shakespearean* (derived from *Shakespeare*) are used as *proper adjectives*.

All descriptive adjectives, which are not derived from proper nouns, may be called *common adjectives*.

Observe these sentences:

These soldiers fought in the war with Grant; *those* soldiers fought with Lee.

Some girls like ice-cream.

He lived in the *third* house on the street.

Our ancestors were Puritans.

In these sentences, the words *these*, *those*, *some*, *third*, and *our* point out or number persons or things. They do not describe the persons or objects.

An adjective which limits the meaning of a noun or pronoun by pointing out or numbering persons or objects is called a limiting adjective.

Limiting adjectives are divided into the following classes and sub-classes:

- | | | |
|------------------------------|---|--|
| I. The Article | { | (1) Definite: <i>the</i> . |
| | | (2) Indefinite: <i>a</i> or <i>an</i> . |
| II. Pronominal
Adjectives | { | (1) Demonstrative: <i>this, that, these</i>
and <i>those</i> . |
| | | (2) Indefinite: <i>some, any, no, every,</i>
<i>each, other, both, neither, few, all,</i>
<i>several, etc.</i> |
| | | (3) Possessive: <i>my, our, your, their,</i>
<i>his, her, its, whose</i> . |
| | | (4) Identifying: <i>same</i> . |
| | | (5) Interrogative: <i>whose, which, what</i> . |
| | | (6) Relative: <i>which, whose</i> . |
| | | (7) Intensive: <i>very</i> . |
| III. Numeral
Adjectives | { | (1) Cardinal: <i>one, two, three, etc.</i> |
| | | (2) Ordinal: <i>first, second, third, etc.</i> |

EXERCISE

I. Write in short sentences ten descriptive adjectives.
Write five descriptive proper adjectives.

II. Write in short sentences proper adjectives derived
from the following proper nouns:

Greece	Canada	India	Virginia
Spain	Africa	Mexico	Brazil
Russia	Australia	Sweden	China
Ireland	Europe	Norway	Shakespeare

III. Point out the limiting adjectives in each of the
following sentences. Point out the descriptive adjectives.

1. Every person should tell the truth.
2. Mr. and Mrs. White celebrated their twenty-fifth anniversary.
3. All quadrupeds are animals with four feet.
4. The minister wore a long, black, shiny coat.
5. He was rich, but he was stingy.
6. Napoleon led the French army to Moscow.
7. Certain members of the society refused to come to the meeting.
8. Many American citizens are of German or of Irish parentage.
9. Each man carried a palm branch.
10. Some naughty boys broke into the orchard.

IV. *Write five sentences, using limiting adjectives which point out, and five sentences containing adjectives which show number or order.*

72. The Article

The man suddenly appeared.

A man suddenly appeared.

These limiting adjectives, *the* and *a* or *an*, are called *articles*. In the first sentence, the article *the* refers to a particular man; in the second sentence, the article *a* simply shows that man belongs to a class of persons. Hence *the* is a *definite article*; *a* or *an* is called the *indefinite article*.

We observe that *a* and *an* have the same meaning; *an* is used before words beginning with a vowel or a silent *h*, and *a* is used before other words; as,

an apple	an onion	a chest	a hat
an eraser	an hour	a figure	a hammock

Note that the word *hour* has a silent *h* and is therefore preceded by *an*.

Words beginning with the long sound of *u* or with the sound of *w* are usually preceded by *a*; as,

A university. A union. Such a one.

EXERCISE

In each of the following sentences, supply the article the, a, or an. Tell which are definite and which are indefinite. Give your reasons for words supplied.

1. I saw — oriole.
2. The man was attacked by — largest lion.
3. — morning was fine and clear.
4. It happened on — certain morning.
5. It happened on — day before Easter.
6. — three men walked together down the street.
7. I saw — oak tree when I looked from — window.
8. They said it was either — bear or — wild-cat.
9. — boys called that — heroic deed.
10. — honorable boy would scorn such an offer.

73. Limiting Pronominal Adjectives

You will observe that the pronominal adjectives in the table given on page 116 are almost the same as the words in the corresponding classes of pronouns, which you have learned about. Pronominal means belonging to or partaking of the nature of a pronoun. Pronominal adjectives, therefore, are adjectives which may also be used as pronouns. Can you tell when to call them pronouns, and when to call them adjectives?

tives? When they are used to limit the meanings of nouns by telling *which* or *what*, or by telling *whose* something is, what do you call them? When they are used in place of nouns, as subjects, objects, etc., what do we call them?

EXERCISE

I. *Use in short sentences the demonstrative and the indefinite pronominals, first as adjectives, then as pronouns.*

II. *Point out the limiting adjectives in these sentences, and tell the class to which each one belongs.*

1. That tree is ten years old.
2. These berries are delicious.
3. Each man was in his place.
4. All men are mortal.
5. Few people believed the rumor.
6. Neither boy is guilty.
7. Some girls opposed the motion.
8. I wish you the same joy.
9. Both kittens are playful.
10. This is the very truth.
11. The same house was struck by lightning twice.

III. *Drop from the preceding sentences the nouns following the pronominal adjectives. Do the sentences still make good sense? How are the pronominal words used in the sentences which you have changed?*

Interrogative Adjectives

The words *whose*, *which*, and *what* are often used in asking questions; as,

Whose plan is this?

Which cañon is larger?

What river forms the eastern boundary?

The words *whose*, *which*, and *what* in the preceding sentences are called *interrogative adjectives*, because they are used to ask questions, and to *limit* the meaning of the nouns which follow them.

The Relative Adjective

The words *which* and *whose* are used as relative adjectives in sentences like these:

The boy, *whose* courage failed, fainted.

They do not know *which* team won the game.

In each of these sentences, the words *which* and *whose* connects a relative clause with the preceding word and also modifies the word which follows.

74. Possessive Adjectives

Certain pronominal words show possession by their forms. We have already learned that these words—*mine*, *ours*, *yours*, *hers*, *his*, and *theirs*—are sometimes used as possessive pronouns. Let us now see how they may also be used as possessive adjectives.

The apple is *mine*.

The orange is *yours*.

The book is *hers*.

The flag is *his*.

The boat is *theirs*.

The tree is *mine*.

In each of these sentences, the italicized words are used as *possessive predicate adjectives*. That is, they

are possessive words, used in the predicates to limit the subjects of the sentences in which they stand. Each possessive adjective limits the subject of the sentence in which it stands by telling *whose apple, orange, or book*, etc., is meant.

The possessive words, *my, your, our, their*, and *its* are always used as possessive adjectives, as they always limit the meanings of nouns by answering the question, "*Whose?*" Thus,

My book is lost. (Whose book?)

Your lesson is well prepared. (Whose lesson?)

Our house burned to the ground. (Whose house?)

Its eyes were sharp and beady. (Whose eyes?)

The word *her*, which is often used as a pronoun in the accusative or in the dative case, may also be used as a possessive adjective; as,

This is *her* book. *Her* eyes are brown. *Her* teeth are well cared for.

The word *whose* is a possessive word which may be used as a *relative possessive adjective*, or as an *interrogative possessive adjective*, or as an *interrogative possessive pronoun*. Can you tell how it is used in each of these sentences?

The man *whose* house was burned is my brother.

Whose house is that on yonder hill?

Whose is this? *Whose* are they?

I am he *whose* rights you have taken away.

Whose plan was it, to have the picnic?

I can not tell *whose* book this is.

EXERCISE

Point out in the following sentences, the possessive adjectives. Tell which ones are used as predicate adjectives; as relative possessive adjectives; as interrogative possessive adjectives.

1. My lesson is difficult.
2. This vase is mine.
3. Your house is conveniently arranged.
4. This piece is yours.
5. Our pleasure was spoiled by the rain.
6. The pleasure is all ours.
7. Tom gave his ball away.
8. The idea is his, not mine.
9. Whose hat is this?
10. Whose coats were missing?
11. Is this yours or hers or his?
12. Their game was broken up by the rain.
13. I know a man whose only ambition is to amass a fortune.
14. All those whose conduct is good, will receive special credit.

75. Numeral Adjectives

There are *seven* days in a week.

He lived in the town for *fifty-two* years.

The admiral had *twenty* ships in line.

You may sit in the *second* seat of the *fourth* row.

Limiting adjectives like these, *seven*, *fifty-two*, *twenty*, *second*, and *fourth*, which are used to show number or order, are called numeral adjectives.

Numeral adjectives which show number are called

cardinal adjectives ; as, *one, four, six*, etc. Those which show order are called *ordinal* adjectives ; *first, fourth, sixth*, etc.

Numerals may also be used as:

(1) Substantives; as,

All *twelve* walked to the top of the mountain.

The boys killed *hundreds* of flies.

NOTE. Some numerals may be used in the plural.

(2) Adverbs; as,

You must not miss class *once*.

Twice he called.

EXERCISE

In the following sentences, point out the numerals which tell how many. Point out those which tell the order in a series. Tell whether each numeral is an adjective, adverb, or a substantive.

1. Everybody should learn the twenty-third psalm.

2. William White paid two thousand dollars for his automobile.

3. Queen Elizabeth ruled forty-five years.

4. A loose-hung figure, six feet four inches high, Lincoln towered above them.

5. First he whispered, then he called aloud.

6. From first to last we kept up our courage.

7. Our baseball nine defeated the Smithfield High School twice.

8. The Giants won the second game with the Pirates with a score of five to four.

76. Inflection of Adjectives for Number and Comparison

Some adjectives change their forms to show number; as,

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Singular</i>
<i>This</i> boy writes well.	<i>That</i> tree is changing color.
<i>This</i> kind is better.	<i>That</i> army is well drilled.
<i>Plural</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>These</i> boys write well.	<i>Those</i> trees are changing color.
<i>These</i> kinds are better.	<i>Those</i> armies are well drilled.

Some adjectives change their forms to show different degrees of quality; as,

1. Fred is *young*.
2. Fred is *younger* than Frank.
3. Fred is the *youngest* boy of his class.

In each of the three sentences above, we observe that the quality of youth belongs to Fred. In the first sentence, Fred's youth is mentioned; in the second sentence, Fred's age is compared with Frank's; in the third sentence, Fred's age is compared with that of all in his class. We see that these additional meanings are expressed by changes in the form of the adjective *young*, which becomes *younger*, *youngest*. Such a change in the form of an adjective to express different degrees of quality is called *comparison*.

Comparison is a change in the forms of adjectives to show different degrees of quality.

77. Degrees of Comparison

There are three degrees of comparison:

- (1) The positive degree shows merely the quality; as,
young, tall, short, low

The positive degree is used without thought of comparison.

- (2) The comparative degree shows a greater or less degree of quality than that shown by the positive; as,
younger, taller, shorter, lower

The comparative degree is used in comparing two objects; as,

Jane is the *taller* of the two girls.

- (3) The superlative degree shows the highest or the lowest degree of quality; as,
youngest, tallest, shortest, lowest

NOTE. The superlative degree of the adjective means that the quality denoted exists in the highest degree in the person or things described. When this means "in the highest degree out of all the persons or things concerned," as in, "Caroline is the *strongest* of all the girls in her class," the superlative is to be called a *relative* superlative. When the superlative is used to show a very high degree of quality, without thought of comparison with others, it is to be called an *absolute* superlative; as,

Caroline is always *most thoughtful* of others.

The superlative degree is used in comparing three or more objects; as,

George is the *oldest* of the five children.

I like Edgar *best* of all.

Mt. Washington is the *highest* peak of the White Mountains.

Adjectives are regularly compared by adding *er* to the positive to form the comparative, and *est* to the positive to form the superlative; as,

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
tall	taller	tallest
high	higher	highest

EXERCISE

I. Write in three columns, as shown above, the positive, comparative, and superlative degrees of each of the following adjectives:

cold, great, sour, short, small, slow, fast, quick

II. Write in three columns the degrees of comparison of the following:

rude, wise, blue, fine, brave, nice, ripe, late, gentle

Adjectives which end in *e* drop the *e* before the *er* ending of the comparative and the *est* ending of the superlative; as, *white*, *whiter*, *whitest*.

III. Write in three columns the degrees of comparison of the following:

merry, pretty, holy, sorry, weary, dry, lovely

Adjectives which end in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* to *i* before the endings *er* and *est*; as, *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*.

IV. Write in three columns the degrees of comparison of the following:

sad, fat, mad, red, thin, wet, glad

Many adjectives which end in a single consonant preceded by a short vowel double the final consonant before the *er* and *est* endings; as, *big, bigger, biggest*.

The regular endings *er* and *est* would, if added to the positive degree of certain adjectives, form awkward and unpleasant words; as, *carefuler, splendidest, honorablest*. In such cases, the comparative degree is formed by using the word *more* before the positive. The superlative is formed by using *most* before the positive; as, *careful, more careful, most careful*.

NOTE. Some adjectives may be compared in either way; as, *happy, happier, happiest*, or *happy, more happy, most happy*; *worthy, worthier, worthiest*, or *worthy, more worthy, most worthy*.

Some adjectives cannot properly be compared, because the sense is positive; as, *round, square, straight, perfect, empty, full, dead, blind, present, lost*.

Some adjectives are compared irregularly. The most common of these are:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
much, many	more	most
little	less, lesser	least
late	later, latter	latest, last
good, well	better	best
bad, ill	worse	worst
far	farther, further	farthest, furthest
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest

78. Classes of Conjunctions

John *and* James are my neighbors.

He took his exercise by walking *and* by running.

They soon returned *and* one of them cried out in a shrill voice.

In the first sentence, the word *and* connects the words *John* and *James*; in the second, it connects the phrases *by walking* and *by running*; in the third, it connects the two principal clauses, *They soon returned* and *one of them cried out in a shrill voice*. The word *and*, because it connects or joins together two words or groups of words, is called a *conjunction*.

A conjunction is a word used to connect words or groups of words.

In the sentences at the beginning of this lesson, we observe that the word *and* connects words or groups of words of equal rank. The other conjunctions which, like *and*, connect words or groups of words of equal rank are:

or, nor, but, for, however, nevertheless, yet, still,
hence, therefore, consequently, also, else, besides,
moreover, likewise

Conjunctions like these are called *co-ordinating conjunctions*.

A co-ordinating conjunction connects words or phrases or clauses which are of equal rank.

When I went out to my wood-pile, I observed two large ants.

If George had learned his lessons, he would have been promoted.

The Titanic sank *while* the Carpathia was rushing to aid her.

In these sentences, the words *when*, *if*, *while* each connects a principal clause and a subordinate clause. In other words, the conjunction in each sentence connects clauses of unequal rank. Such a conjunction is called a *subordinating conjunction*.

A subordinating conjunction joins a subordinate clause to the word or words upon which it depends.

The subordinate clause may depend upon a principal clause or upon a preceding subordinate clause; as,

You must change your clothes, *when you reach home*.

Though he came, *as he promised*, he was not in a good humor.

Subordinating conjunctions may be classified according to their uses and meanings in this way:

1. Cause: *as, because, for, since*.
2. Concession: *although, though*.
3. Condition: *if, except, unless*.
4. Degree: *as, than*.
5. Comparison: *as, as if, than*.
6. Purpose: *lest, in order that, that*.
7. Result: *that, so that*.
8. Time: *when, after, before, ere, since, till, until, while, as, whenever*, etc.
9. Place: *where, wherever, wheresoever, whence, whither, whithersoever*.
10. *That*, used to introduce noun clauses; as, *That you are mistaken* is certain.

The relative pronouns *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*, are always used as subordinating conjunctions. The interrogative pronouns *who*, *which*, and *what* are used in indirect statements as subordinating conjunctions; as,

I know *who* you are.

He asked *where* we went.

Correlative Conjunctions

Sometimes we wish to use a stronger form than a single conjunction. In such cases we use a correlative conjunction or a pair of words as a conjunction; as, *either — or*, *neither — nor*, *whether — or*, *both — and*, *not only — but also*; as,

Both John *and* his sister were in the same class.

You may *either* go *or* stay.

NOTE. The parts of a correlative conjunction must precede parts which have the same office in a sentence. If *not only* precedes a noun, *but also* must precede a noun used in the same way. If *not only* precedes a verb, *but also* precedes a similar verb.

EXERCISE

Supply proper conjunctions in the following sentences. Tell the kinds of conjunctions used. Tell what words or clauses each conjunction connects.

1. The automobile came up — we were speaking.
2. He would not go — he had found what he had lost.
3. Congress decided — we should allow the Panama Canal to be free to all — we should tax our ships.

4. I made a sign — I wanted something to eat.
5. — I were you, I should not go with such people.
6. The boy walked — he were a royal prince.
7. Stand by the flag — you would stand by your mother.
8. Frank — George spent Christmas — New Year's in the South.
9. — he was blind, he could go alone everywhere in the town.
10. — the witness was absent, the trial was postponed.

79. Kinds of Verbs

Verbs are divided into two classes — *transitive* and *intransitive*.

If the action, thought, or feeling expressed by a verb affects some person or thing, the verb is *transitive*. In other words, if the verb is so used as to suggest both an *active agent* and a *receiver* of the action, thought, or feeling, the verb is *transitive*; as,

(Active agent)	(Action)	(Receiver of the act)
The woodsman	FELLED	THE TREE.

If the action, thought, or feeling expressed by the verb does not concern an *object*, the verb is *intransitive*. An intransitive verb, like all verbs, has a subject, but it does *not* have an object; as, .

(Active agent)	(Action)	(Receiver of the act)
HARRY	fell.	(no one)

Observe carefully the uses of the verbs in the following sentences:

1. The mariner *shot* the albatross.

The verb *shot* is a transitive verb, because it expresses an action which affects an object, the *albatross*.

2. The albatross *was shot* by the mariner.

The verb *was shot* is a transitive verb, because, as in sentence 1, the mariner's action affects something other than the mariner; that is, the *albatross*.

NOTE. Observe that in sentences 1 and 2, the verb, though it does not have the same form in both, has the same meaning. In both sentences, the verb expresses an action which involves both an *actor* and a *receiver*.

TO THE TEACHER. See treatment of Active and Passive Voice, page 198.

3. John *laughed*. Flowers *grow*. Stars *shine*.

The verbs *laughed*, *grow*, and *shine* are *intransitive verbs*, because they express actions or states which do not affect objects. They suggest *active agents*, but not *receivers of the actions*, nor *objects affected by the action*.

EXERCISE

I. Which verbs in the following sentences express actions or feelings affecting some object? What kind of verbs are these? Which verbs express actions or feelings involving an active agent, but no receiver of the action or feeling? What kind of verbs are these?

1. Turner painted wonderful landscapes.
2. This landscape was painted by Turner.

NOTE. Does the verb *was painted* suggest both a *painter* and a *thing painted*?

3. Snakes crawl.
4. A heavy wind arose.
5. The fire raged through the night.
6. Misery acquaints a man with strange bed-fellows.
7. Glass windows may have been introduced into England in the eighth century. (Note that the verb suggests both an *introducer* and a *thing introduced*.)
8. The rabbits enjoyed the long summer.
9. Discuss the statement at the head of the lesson.

II. *If the verb at the end of any of the following sentences is transitive and requires an object to complete its meaning, supply the necessary object. If the verb at the end of the sentence is intransitive, close the sentence with the proper punctuation mark.*

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. The wasp stung | 6. John's courage wavered |
| 2. Birds fly | 7. Where did Harry lose |
| 3. Why did you laugh | 8. Who threw |
| 4. Hope vanished | 9. The weather moderated |
| 5. The teacher reproved | 10. The horse stumbled |

80. Verbs Used Transitively or Intransitively

A verb may be transitive in one sense and intransitive in another sense; as,

Transitive

The girl *dried* the clothes.
 The heat *melted* the ice.
 Mother *kept* the meat in a refrigerator.
 Ben *flies* his kite skillfully.
 The farmer *grows* corn.

Intransitive

The clothes *dried* in the sun.
 The ice soon *melted*.
 The meat *kept* fresh for several days.
 The kite *flies* high.
 The corn *grows* rapidly.

Many verbs really transitive are often used without expressed objects; as,

Horses <i>eat</i> .	Bees <i>sting</i> .	Cats <i>scratch</i> .
Fire <i>burns</i> .	Snakes <i>bite</i> .	A knife <i>cuts</i> .

The action expressed by each of the verbs in the preceding sentences necessarily affects some *object*; as,

Horses *eat corn* (or something else).

Fire *burns wood* (or something else), etc.

EXERCISE

I. Tell why each italicized verb in the following sentences is transitive or intransitive:

1. The weather *has moderated*.
2. The gulf stream *moderates* the climate of England.
3. The train *jumped* the track.
4. Being *frightened*, I *jumped* from the carriage.
5. The driver *ran* his car too fast.
6. The Indian *ran* like a deer.
7. A keen wind *blew* from the north.
8. The wind *blew* the house down.
9. The cyclone *swept* by.
10. Have you *swept* the room?
11. The desperado *escaped* the policeman.
12. Help, help, or he will *escape*!

II. Use each of the following verbs first as a transitive, then as an intransitive verb:

keep	flee	slammed	sails
fly	moves	stop	sinks
leap	spread	melts	floated

81. Complete Verbs and Linking Verbs

Intransitive verbs may be divided into two classes, those which are *complete in themselves*, and those *used to link* predicate substantives or predicate adjectives to subjects; as,

The horse *ran*.

The dog *barked*.

The chickens *crowed*.

The intransitive verbs in these sentences are *complete* in themselves, as no other words need be added to complete the meaning of the sentences.

The flower *is* fragrant.

Frank *seemed* weary.

Alice *has been* ill.

The intransitive verbs in these sentences are not complete in themselves. They are used to link the subjects with the predicate adjectives which follow.

An intransitive verb which links, or connects a predicate noun, a predicate pronoun, or a predicate adjective with a subject is called a **linking verb**.

All intransitive verbs not used as linking verbs are complete verbs.

The verbs *be, am, was, been, are, were, has been, had been, shall be*, etc., are usually *linking verbs*; as,

The house *is* ghostly. Ralph *was* chairman.

I *am* he. Silas *had been* a miser.

Other verbs frequently used as linking verbs are: *seem, appear, stand, walk, become, look, feel, taste, smell, continue, remain, sound, keep, grow, turn, grew*.

When these verbs are used as linking verbs, they have generally the sense of the verbs *am*, *is*, *are*, *were*, etc.

Observe carefully the use of the linking verbs in the following sentences:

1. His statement *seemed* true (*was* apparently true).
2. Willie *appeared* ill (*was* apparently ill).
3. The tower *stands* straight (*is* straight).
4. Man *walks* upright (*is* upright in posture).
5. Grant *became* commander-in-chief (*was* commander-in-chief).
6. Dr. Eliot *looked* angry (*was* angry).
7. Do you *feel* ill? (*Are* you ill?)
8. The carnation *smells* fragrant (*is* fragrant to the sense of smell).

EXERCISE

Tell whether each of the verbs in the following sentences is transitive, complete, or linking. Remember that the use of a verb determines its kind.

1. Can you endure this noise?
2. Then the specter appeared in the window.
3. The trainer walked his horse an hour.
4. The Palmer looked Marmion in the eye.
5. Please do not stand so long.
6. The flower appeared white in the evening.
7. The old man walked firm and upright.
8. Tom looked and looked, but could see nothing.
9. Does anyone feel a draft from that window?
10. Harry tasted the ice-cream.
11. Uncas smelled the burning leaves.
12. Helen feels disappointed.
13. The ice-cream tasted cold.

14. The rose smells sweet.
15. The party continued the journey.
16. Arnold continued disloyal.

82. Some Errors in the Uses of Verbs: Lie and Lay

Lie, meaning to *recline*, is always a complete verb. Its three principal forms are:

- (1) *lie* (used to show present time)
- (2) *lay* (used to show past time)
- (3) *lain* (used with *have*, *has*, or *had* to show past time)

We should always use one of these forms when we have in mind the thought of *reclining*; as,

Tom *lies* on the grass. (*Reclines* on the grass.)

Tom *lay* on the grass. (*Reclined* on the grass.)

NOTE. Never say *laid* to mean *reclined*.

Tom *has lain* on the grass. (*Has reclined* on the grass.)

Tom *was lying* on the grass. (*Was reclining* on the grass.)

NOTE. Never say *has laid* to mean *has reclined*.

You will observe from the sentences above that *lie*, *lay*, and *lain* mean simply *recline*, *reclined*, *reclined*. You may clearly see, also, that these verbs, like *reclined*, never take objects.

Lay, meaning to *place something*, is a different verb altogether from the form *lay* which is the past form of *lie* and which means *reclined*. *Lay*, meaning to *place something*, is always a *transitive* verb. Its principal forms are:

- (1) *lay* (used to show present time)
- (2) *laid* (used to show past time)
- (3) *laid* (used with *have*, *has*, or *had* to show past time)

We use these forms when we have in mind the thought of *placing something*; as,

Frank, please *lay* the book on the table. (*Place* the book.)

Frank *laid* the book on the table. (*Placed* the book.)

Frank *has laid* the book on the table. (*Has placed* the book.)

Frank was *laying* the book on the table. (*Was placing* the book.)

We can see clearly from the sentences preceding

(1) That *lay* should never be used to show *present time* unless we mean to *place* something.

(2) That *laid* should never be used to show *past time* unless we mean to *place* something.

EXERCISE

I. *Fill the following blanks with forms of lie and lay, according to meaning. If a sentence suggests the thought of reclining, use some form of lie. If it suggests the thought of placing, use lay or laid.*

1. — down and rest awhile.
2. — the pillow on the floor.
3. The cat — before the fire yesterday.
4. The traveler had — down the rest.
5. Have you — your papers away?
6. This beautiful land — to the east.
7. Let us — aside our cares.
8. How long Tim — there, I do not know.
9. Had the soldiers — there long?

II. *Write three sentences, using three forms of lie. Write three sentences, using three forms of lay.*

III. Write complete answers to the following questions. Use in your answers the different forms of *lie* and *lay*.

1. Where is Carlo? (Answer: Carlo is *lying* on the mat.)
2. What did the soldier do with his knapsack?
3. Where may I rest?
4. What have you done with my book?
5. What has become of my writing materials? (Answer: They have been — aside.)
6. What do people usually do when they wish to go to sleep?
7. What did John do yesterday when he grew tired of play? (Use past of *lie* in your answer.)
8. How had the weary traveler sought rest? (Use *had* and the form of *lie* which follows *had*.)

83. Rise and Raise

The verb *rise* is always used as a complete verb. It means *go up, ascend*. Its principal forms are *rise* (meaning *ascend*); *rose* (meaning *ascended*); *risen* (meaning *ascended*).

The smoke *rises* (*ascends*).

The smoke *rose* (*ascended*).

The smoke *has* or *had risen* (*has* or *had ascended*).

The smoke *was rising* (*was ascending*).

We may see from the preceding sentences that whenever we have in mind the thought of *ascending* or *going up*, we must use *rise* or some form of *rise* instead of *raise* or its forms.

The verb *raise*, meaning *lift up*, or *make something grow*, is always used as a transitive verb. Its principal forms are *raise*, *raised*, *raised*.

The farmer *raises* corn.
The explosion *raised* the building.
Mr. Benson *has raised* some fine cattle.
The orchardist *was raising* small fruits.
The yeast *had raised* the dough.

Observe that the verb *raise* and its forms are followed by objects. We use this verb only when we mean *lift up*, or *make* plants or animals *grow*.

NOTE. Never use *raise* or its forms to mean *ascend* or *go up*. Never use *raise* in the sense of *rear*. Do not say, "The man *raised* a large family," say, "The man *reared* a large family."

EXERCISE

Supply rise and raise or some of their forms in the following blanks. If the sentence suggests the thought of going up or ascending, use some form of rise. If it suggests the thought of lifting up or making something grow, use a form of raise.

1. Hal — the load without apparent effort.
2. The steam is — from the spout.
3. The steam — the lid from the kettle.
4. The bread — quickly when it is placed in the proper temperature.
5. The dough — the lid from the pan.
6. Pedro — and wagged his tail knowingly.
7. The sun had — before we —
8. The chairman had — an objection.
9. At what time do you usually —?
10. What kind of grain did Mr. Williams —?
11. Please — the window.

84. Sit and Set

The verb *sit* is a complete verb. Its principal forms are *sit, sat, sat*. *Sit* and its forms mean *to rest* or *to remain in a resting position*.

The chair *sits* in a corner of the room.

The chair *sat* in a corner of the room.

The chair *has sat* there forever.

The chair *is sitting* in a corner.

NOTE. Never use *set* to mean *rests* or *remains in a resting position*.

The verb *set* is always used as a transitive verb. Its form does not change to show past time. *Set* always means *to place*.

Set the chair down.

We *set* the clock yesterday.

Mary *had set* the vase in the window.

Florence *is setting* the table.

Observe that the verb *set* takes an object, and that it always carries with it the thought of *placing*.

NOTE. *Set* is used as an intransitive verb in a few sentences like these: The sun *sets*. Cæsar *set* out with his army.

EXERCISE

Use set and forms of sit in the following sentences. If a sentence suggests the thought of resting or remaining in a sitting position, use sit or sat. If a sentence suggests placing, use set.

1. Please —— the chair in the corner and let it —— there.
2. The vase is —— in the window.

3. Frank — the music rack close to the piano, and it — there a week.
4. Edith — the vase on the table.
5. How long had you — there?
6. Why were you — in the draft?
7. The book-case — in the library where it had first been — for fifty years.
8. The house — upon a knoll.
9. The members of the Peace Conference — in consultation three days.

85. Principal Forms of Verbs

Learn the principal forms of the following verbs, and use the second and third forms in short sentences of your own. Remember that the forms given in the third column are, when used as verbs, always preceded by *have*, *has*, or *had*. (See page 365.)

1	2	3
<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past</i>
arise	arose	arisen
begin	began	begun
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
choose	chose	chosen
come	came	come
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen

NOTE. Never use *have*, *has*, or *had* with any of the forms in column 2.

86. Review

Define a verb. Into what two classes are verbs divided? Give an example of each kind. Into what two classes are intransitive verbs divided?

Name five verbs which may be used either as transitive or as intransitive verbs. Use these verbs in sentences, both as transitive and as intransitive verbs. What is a complete verb? What is a linking verb? Name the forms of *to be*. Name ten other verbs which may be used as linking verbs. What parts of speech are used as predicates? What does the verb *lay* mean when it is used correctly to show present time? What does the verb *lay* mean when it is used correctly to show past time? Show by examples how these two verbs should be used. Use forms of *lay* correctly in three different sentences. Name three forms of each of the verbs *rise* and *raise*. Show, by several examples, the difference in the uses of the three forms of each of the verbs *rise* and *raise*. When is it correct to use the verb *set*? What kind of verb is *sit* and its forms? What does the verb *sat* mean?

87. Classes of Adverbs

Interrogative Adverbs

The adverbs *where*, *when*, *whence*, *whither*, *how*, and *why* are frequently used in asking *questions*. When so used they are called *interrogative adverbs*; as

How are you? *When* did you come?
Where are the Indian tribes of the past?
Why may we not have peace?
When will you go to Europe?

Relative Adverbs

A few adverbs are sometimes used to introduce subordinate clauses and to join these clauses to other words or groups of words.

Observe the use of the italicized adverbs in the following sentences:

Flowers bloom *WHEN spring comes*.

Prince Edward wished to go *WHERE the climate was more equable*.

In these sentences, the adverbs *when* and *where* are used to introduce clauses and to join them to other clauses. Adverbs so used are called *relative adverbs*.

An adverb used to connect two clauses is a *relative adverb*.

NOTE. *Relative adverbs*, sometimes called conjunctive adverbs, are so called because they express adverbial ideas which are related to ideas in both of the clauses connected. In the sentence *Flowers bloom when spring comes*, the relative adverb *when* really modifies the verb *bloom* and also the verb *comes*.

The words commonly used as relative adverbs are:

where, whence, whither, wherever, when, whenever,
while, as, before, since, after, till, until

EXERCISE

I. *Make sentences, using each of the relative adverbs given in the preceding list to join two clauses.*

Example

After dinner had been served, we went to the library.

After connects the two clauses dinner had been served and we went to the library.

II. Pick out the relative adverbs and the two clauses joined by them in each of the following sentences:

1. The students passed to recitations when the bell rang.
2. Our team played where the ground was hard.
3. No one could say whence he came.
4. We shall follow wherever you lead.
5. The boy cried whenever the soot got into his eyes.
6. One division fought while another rested.
7. Many interesting things have happened since you left.
8. Until you apologize, I shall not grant your wish.
9. The captain was unable to tell how the accident occurred.

88. Comparison of Adverbs

Most adverbs of degree and adverbs of manner may be compared. Such adverbs are compared like adjectives.

Adverbs ending in *ly* are generally compared by prefixing to the positive degree the words *more* and *most* or *less* and *least*; as,

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
gently	more gently	most gently
beautifully	more beautifully	most beautifully

Some adverbs are compared by adding to the positive degree the suffixes *er* or *est*; as,

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
near	nearer	nearest
hard	harder	hardest
10	145	

A few adverbs are compared irregularly; as,

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
little	less	least
late	{ later { latter	{ latest { last
far	{ farther { further	{ farthest { furthest
nigh or near	nearer	nearest
much	more	most
ill	worse	worst
well	better	best
badly	worse	worst

Many adverbs do not admit of comparison; as,
so, very, here, now, then, almost, over, beyond, aloft

NOTE. *Farther* and *farthest* are used to denote distance; as, We walked a mile *farther*. *Further* and *furthest* are used to denote additional thought; as, I cannot explain *further*.

EXERCISE

I. *Compare the following adverbs:*

intelligently, handsomely, wisely, near, often, well,
many, far, high, little, badly, nigh, swiftly

II. *Use in sentences the comparative degrees of the following adverbs:*

ill, slow, hard, often, comfortably, well, late, seldom

89. Special Uses of Adverbs

Observe the special uses of adverbs in the following sentences:

Thoreau wrote *simply* of the things he saw around him.

In this sentence, the word *simply* modifies the single word *wrote*.

The officers came *simply* to investigate the matter.

In this sentence, the adverb *simply* modifies the phrase *to investigate the matter*.

Henry resigned *simply* because he was angry.

In this sentence, the adverb *simply* modifies the clause *because he was angry*.

An adverb may modify a word, a phrase, or a clause.

Certain adverbs are used to modify the meaning of the entire sentence rather than any one word in the sentence.

Observe the use of the italicized adverbs in the following sentences:

Indeed I shall do nothing of the kind.

Certainly we shall go.

Perhaps I am in the wrong.

In these sentences, the adverbs *indeed*, *certainly*, *perhaps*, etc., are used to modify the meanings of the *statements taken as a whole*, and not of *particular words*. Adverbs used in this way are called *modal adverbs*, because they affect the *mode* of the statement.

An adverb used to modify the meaning of an entire statement is called a modal adverb.

EXERCISE

I. Which of the adverbs used in the following sentences modify single words? Which modify phrases? Which modify clauses?

1. I can only apologize.
2. Fritz had come West only to seek gold.
3. You spoiled the drawing only because you were envious.
4. My friend came merely to please me.
5. Tom ran for the office merely that he might spite his opponent.
6. Lillie merely spoke and then passed on.
7. They came solely for fun.
8. I acted thus solely that I might benefit you in some way.

II. *Write ten sentences containing modal adverbs.*

90. Adverbs Incorrectly Used in Place of Predicate Adjectives

Do not use adverbs as they are used in these sentences.

Ben feels *badly*.

The rose smells *sweetly*.

The orange tastes *well*.

The italicized adverbs are incorrectly used in these sentences, because verbs like *feels*, *smells*, and *tastes*, when used as linking verbs, must be completed by *predicate adjectives*, not by *adverbs*. The sentences should read:

Ben feels *bad*.

The rose smells *sweet*.

The orange tastes *good*.

NOTE. See Linking Verbs on page 135.

EXERCISE

I. *Copy the following sentences, choosing from the words in parentheses the ones which you think would be correctly used. Give reasons for the choices you have made.*

1. Frances looked (angrily) (angry).
2. The watchman stood (upright) (uprightly).
3. The specter appeared (frightfully) (frightful).
4. The quinine tastes (bitterly) (bitter).
5. The onion smelled (strong) (strongly).
6. I feel (disagreeable) (disagreeably).

II. Tell the difference in the meanings of the italicized adjectives and adverbs in the following sentences:

1. My friend remained *loyal*.
2. My friend served me *loyally*.
3. Helen looked *sad*.
4. Helen looked *sadly* at the broken vase.
5. The cadet walked *erect*.
6. The cadet walked *erectly*.

91. Placing of Adverbs

Be careful to place adverbs in such positions that there can be no doubt as to the words they modify.

Observe the lack of clearness, due to the faulty placing of adverbs, in the following sentences:

1. Charles *only* told you that you might be warned.

The position of the word *only* makes it seem to modify the verb *told*. It really modifies the group of words *that you might be warned*. The sentence should read:

Charles told you only that you might be warned.

2. Oliver was *almost* frightened to death.

The position of *almost* makes it seem to modify the word *frightened*. It really modifies the phrase *to death*.

Oliver was not *almost* frightened; he was, judged from the meaning of the sentence, *very much* frightened.

EXERCISE

I. *The italicized adverbs used in the following sentences are placed in such positions that they seem to modify words which they are not intended to modify. What false meanings do they give to the sentences? Rewrite the sentences, placing the adverbs where they belong.*

1. Elizabeth is *only* taking Latin this year.
2. John does *not* think I am mistaken.
3. Do you *always* think I am in the wrong?
4. Do not blame me *wholly* for the accident.
5. We were *almost* smothered to death.
6. The people *only* came to laugh.
7. Our friends were glad to see us *always*.
8. Criminals are punished for committing crimes *generally*.

II. *Copy the following sentences, inserting the adverbs where they belong:*

1. Jack apologized to gain favor (only).
2. The doctor called because I was ill (often).
3. Dan urged George to stop drinking (frequently).
4. His irresponsible ways drove me distracted (almost).
5. Do not rely upon his judgment (fully).
6. I advise you that you may be warned (only).

92. Review

Name the classes of adverbs. Give an example of each class. What parts of speech do adverbs modify? What is a

relative adverb? Name five relative adverbs, and use them in sentences. What is a modal adverb? Name eight modal adverbs, and use them in sentences. How are most adverbs of manner compared? Compare five. How are adverbs of one syllable generally compared? Compare *fast*, *soon*, *near*, *often*, *late*. Compare these adverbs: *well*, *little*, *late*, *ill*, *much*, *far*. Name ten adverbs which cannot be compared. After what kind of verbs is it incorrect to use adverbs like *badly*, *sweetly*, *well*, etc., in place of the predicate adjectives *bad*, *sweet*, *well*, etc.? How, in our arrangement of adverbs, may we avoid a lack of clearness in our sentences?

CHAPTER V

ELEMENTS IN THE SENTENCE—REVIEW AND CLASSIFICATION

93. Substantive Clauses

That the man has committed a crime, is my opinion.

My opinion is *that the man has committed a crime*.

I know *that the man has committed a crime*.

I am certain of the fact *that the man has committed a crime*.

The speaker talked of *what had been done in China*.

We have learned that a group of words like each of the italicized groups above is a clause.

We have learned also that such a clause depends upon some other part of the sentence, and is therefore a subordinate clause.

In these sentences, the subordinate clause is used in four different ways. In the first, it is the subject of the sentence; in the second, it is a predicate substantive; in the third, it is the direct object of the verb *know*; in the fourth, it is in apposition with the word *fact*. In the fifth, the subordinate clause is used with the preposition *of*. Therefore the subordinate clause in each of these sentences is used as a substantive.

A subordinate clause which is used as a substantive is called a substantive clause.

A subordinate clause may be used as a substantive in five different ways; as,

- (1) subject
- (2) predicate nominative
- (3) direct object of a verb
- (4) an appositive
- (5) principal member of a prepositional phrase

Substantive clauses are generally introduced by the conjunction *that*. In indirect questions, they are frequently introduced by the interrogative pronouns *who*, *which*, or *what*, or by the interrogative adverbs *when*, *where*, *why*, *how*, *whence*, *whither*, etc.; as,

I know *who told you*.

I wonder *when they came*.

He asked *where I lived*.

You must tell *what he said*.

EXERCISE

Tell how each of the substantive clauses is used in the following sentences:

1. That you are mistaken is certain.
2. I hope that you will succeed.
3. The truth is that no one knew who committed the theft.
4. The minister prayed that rain might come.
5. I am afraid of what may happen.
6. The skipper told where the treasure could be found.

7. The traveler asked how he might reach the next station.

8. The proverb, that a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush, was written by Benjamin Franklin.

94. Adjectival Clauses

The *talented* man will succeed.

The man *of talent* will succeed.

The man *who is talented* will succeed.

In each of these sentences the idea of a *talented man* is expressed; but the form of expression is different. In the first, the word *man* is modified by the adjective *talented*; in the second, the word *man* is modified by the prepositional phrase *of talent*; in the third, the word *man* is modified by the subordinate clause *who is talented*. In the last sentence, the subordinate clause is used like the adjective *talented* in the first sentence, and like the adjectival phrase *of talent* in the second.

A subordinate clause which is used, like an adjective, to modify a noun or pronoun is called an adjectival clause.

In the following sentences, the subordinate clauses are adjectival clauses because they modify nouns.

1. Silver Creek, *which runs by the side of our farm,* empties into the Ohio River.

2. The railway engine struck an automobile *which tried to cross the track.*

3. It was the day *that had been set for the meeting.*

4. The boys were playing the drama of William Tell, *who was the hero of Switzerland.*

Adjectival clauses may be introduced by the relative pronouns *who*, *which*, and *that*.

Adjectival clauses introduced by relative pronouns are called *relative clauses*.

Adjectival clauses may also be introduced by adverbs such as *where*, *when*, *whence*, *whither*, *why*, *before*, and *after*. Observe that an adjectival clause is an adjectival clause because it is used to modify a noun or a pronoun. Hence it may be introduced by an adverb and still be an adjectival clause.

We came to a bank *where millions of flowers were growing*.

That was a time *when people believed in giants*.

He refused to show the room *whence the man had escaped*.

In these sentences, the clauses introduced by *where*, *when*, and *whence* modify the nouns *bank*, *time*, *room*. Hence they are adjectival clauses.

95. Adverbial Clauses

We live *where the flowers bloom the year around*.

George tried to laugh *when he saw the joke*.

Maggie ran away *because she was angry*.

Note that each of these subordinate clauses modifies a verb, and is therefore used as an adverb.

A subordinate clause *which* is used like an adverb is called an *adverbial clause*.

Adverbial clauses may be introduced by:

(1) The relative adverbs *where*, *when*, *whence*, *whither*, *after*, *before*, *while*, *until*, *till*, *as*, etc.

(2) The subordinating conjunctions *although, though, because, if, that, lest, unless, in order that, so that*, etc.

Summary

The kind of subordinate clause is determined by its use in the sentence, and not by the word which introduces the clause.

A clause used like a noun is a substantive clause.

A clause used like an adjective is an adjectival clause.

A clause used like an adverb is an adverbial clause.

Some words, such as *that, when, where*, may introduce noun clauses, adjectival clauses, or adverbial clauses.

EXERCISE

Pick out the substantive clauses, the adjectival clauses, and the adverbial clauses in the following sentences.

1. Any life that is worth living must be a struggle.
2. I do not understand how you dared to do it.
3. When I start to do a thing, I hate to give up.
4. There was something in his face which made me sad.
5. When the messengers came to Cincinnatus, they found him plowing.
6. We pity the boy who mistreats animals.
7. I shall be gone before you come.
8. The Council held a meeting at which they voted to improve the street.
9. Can you tell where the birds sleep on these cold winter nights?
10. Washington Irving who wrote *The Sketch Book* lived at Tarrytown on the Hudson.

96. Determinative and Descriptive Adjectival Clauses

I saw the man *who had won the race*.

I met my friend Simpson, *who told me about the race*.

In the first sentence the subordinate clause, *who had won the race*, is used to determine *what* man is meant. In the second sentence, the clause, *who told me about the race*, is used to add something to our idea of *Simpson*, — to *describe* him by telling something of interest about him or his doings.

An adjectival clause which is used to *distinguish* persons or things from other persons or things, is called a *determinative clause*. An adjectival clause which is used to *add* something of interest about persons or things, that is to describe, is called a *descriptive clause*.

NOTE. A *determinative clause* tells *who*, *which*, or *what* is meant by the antecedent to which the relative clause is attached.

Note (1) that the determinative clause, being necessary, should not be separated by a mark of punctuation from the word which it limits; (2) that the descriptive, being often parenthetical, should usually be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma or by commas.

EXERCISE

Point out the determinative and the descriptive clauses in the following sentences. Supply the proper punctuation.

1. The dying soldier waited for the surgeon who never came.

2. Columbus who discovered America sailed from Palos.
3. The moon which had just risen went behind the clouds.
4. The officer who was his superior took command of the fleet.
5. This is the bicycle which father gave me.
6. All the world's a stage on which man plays many parts.
7. Harvard University which is our oldest university is in Cambridge, Massachusetts.
8. He that fights and runs away may live to fight another day.
9. Then the rain which they had long wished for fell in torrents.
10. The man is best dressed whose clothes no one observes.

97. Essential and Non-essential Phrases and Clauses

In the following sentences, point out first the italicized phrases and clauses which cannot be omitted without leaving the thought of the sentence incomplete. Point out, second, the phrases and clauses which are not necessary to the principal thought of the sentences.

1. There are men *who place right thinking and doing above all else.*
2. Last evening I met your chum, James O'Brien, *who wins the tennis championship each year.*
3. A path, *winding and shady,* ran through the middle of our garden.
4. Mother's letter, *which was delayed by the floods,* finally reached me.
5. The doctor advised the sick man to go to a country *where the climate was more equable.*
6. It is probable *that there will be trouble.*

7. He was chiefly famous — *if, indeed, he made any claim to distinction* — as a scientist.

8. The Coliseum (*I shall describe it fully later*) was beautiful by moonlight.

9. We threw the drowning man a rope, *which he clutched with all his strength*.

10. A boy of *integrity* would not, of course, stoop to such a trick.

11. I do not know *when the verdict was announced*.

12. People *who are mere imitators* do not make much progress.

13. What is the name of the curious plant *which you brought from Porto Rico?*

In the preceding sentences, the clauses and phrases which may not be omitted without leaving the thoughts incomplete, are called *essential clauses* and *essential phrases*. Those phrases and clauses which may be omitted without spoiling the sense are called *non-essential phrases* and *clauses*.

Essential phrases and clauses are usually not set off from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Non-essential groups are usually set off from the rest of the sentence by commas, and sometimes by dashes or parentheses.

98. The Simple Sentence

We have already learned that because sentences are used in different ways, or have different uses, they are divided into these classes:

1. *Declarative sentences*, used to make statements or to give commands, etc.

2. *Interrogative sentences*, used to ask questions.

NOTE. Declarative and interrogative sentences are either *exclamatory* or *non-exclamatory sentences*.

Some sentences contain *single statements, commands, or questions* without any subordinate clauses.

The aviator fell a thousand feet from his airship.

This declarative sentence makes a *single statement* and contains *no subordinate clause*.

Defend your country at any cost, my boys.

This declarative sentence gives a *single order or command* and contains *no subordinate clause*.

Do flowers really throw off carbonic acid gas at night?

This interrogative sentence asks a *single question* and contains *no subordinate clause*.

O, how I enjoyed the picnic!

This exclamatory sentence makes a *single statement* and contains *no subordinate clause*.

Sentences like these are called *simple sentences*, because they consist of *single statements, commands, or questions* and have *no subordinate clauses*.

A *simple sentence* contains one statement, command, or question and no subordinate clause.

EXERCISE

I. Tell why each of the following sentences is a simple sentence. Classify each one, telling whether it is declarative or interrogative. Tell which sentences are exclamatory:

1. A violent storm swept over the sea.
2. To-night we see no moon.
3. Take three stitches and drop one.
4. Heed not the day of small things.
5. Ten thousand saw I at a glance.
6. To him she speaks a various language.
7. What criticism did the teacher make upon your theme?
8. O, what a plight we are in!
9. Why, O, why did you not come!

II. *Write five single statements of facts. Write three single questions. Write three single commands or requests. Do not use subordinate clauses in any of the sentences.*

What kind of sentence is each one which you have written?

99. The Compound Sentence

A sentence may contain two or more statements, commands, or questions; that is, *two or more principal clauses*.

Your house is on fire and your children are at home.

This sentence contains two distinct statements, or principal clauses, and *no subordinate clauses*.

Will you bring the book to me, or shall I bring it to you?

This sentence contains two distinct questions, or principal clauses, and *no subordinate clauses*.

Sentences like these, which contain two or more *principal clauses* and *no subordinate clauses*, are called *compound sentences*.

A compound sentence contains two or more principal clauses and no subordinate clauses.

We must be careful not to mistake for compound sentences those simple sentences which contain co-ordinate elements ; that is compound subject, compound predicate, compound object, etc.

NOTE. The statements or questions of a compound sentence are joined by co-ordinating connectives; such as *and*, *but*, *also*, *moreover*, *likewise*, *however*, *or*, *nor*, *nevertheless*, etc.

EXERCISE

Tell why each of the following sentences is a compound sentence. To what class of connectives does each of the conjunctions italicized belong? (Review Co-ordinating Connectives on page 128.)

1. The winds blew, the rains descended, *and* the floods came.

2. The battle was brief, *but* it was decisive.

3. I am not homesick, *nor* am I angry.

4. Willie is the real offender; *hence* he is the one to apologize.

5. Rip was a simple, good-natured man; *moreover* he was an obedient, henpecked husband.

6. One was tall; the other was short.

NOTE. When the co-ordinating connective is omitted between the clauses of a compound sentence, the semicolon is used instead.

7. Our team fought manfully; *nevertheless* we were defeated.

NOTE. The semicolon is generally used before all single co-ordinating connectives except *and*, *but*, *or*, and *nor*. (See rule 3 on page 352.)

100. The Complex Sentence

We are frequently unable to express a complete thought in a simple sentence. Certain ideas which belong to our thought must be expressed in *subordinate clauses*. Therefore, we often use sentences containing single statements, commands, or questions, together with *one or more subordinate clauses*.

1. *When the airship collapsed*, the aviator fell a thousand feet to the ground.

This sentence, like the first simple sentence on page 160, contains the single statement *the aviator fell a thousand feet to the ground*. The sentence is not *simple*, however, because it contains, in addition to the principal clause, the subordinate clause *when the airship collapsed*.

2. Do flowers throw off carbonic acid gas *when night comes*?

This sentence, like the second simple sentence on page 160, contains a single question. It is not a simple sentence, because it contains, in addition to the principal clause, the subordinate clause *when night comes*.

Sentences like these are called *complex sentences*, because they consist of two kinds of clauses — *principal* and *subordinate*.

A complex sentence consists of one principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

A sentence which contains two or more principal clauses and one or more subordinate clauses is called a *compound-complex sentence*; as,

You may go *when the time comes*, or you may remain at school *if you wish to do so*.

The wind, *which arose early in the evening*, blew down a number of trees, and the rain *which followed*, destroyed half the crops.

EXERCISE

I. *Write ten complex sentences. Let your subordinate clauses begin, respectively, with the connectives where, when, as, who, although, since, until, while, before, if.*

II. *Classify each of the following sentences as a complex, compound, or compound-complex sentence:*

1. I am busy now; but, when my work is done, I shall take you for a drive.

2. Be sure you put your feet in the right place; then stand firm.

3. You may fool all the people some of the time; some of the people [you may fool] all the time; but you cannot fool all the people all the time.

4. Let not him who is homeless pull down the house of another; but let him labor diligently to build one for himself.

5. The nymphs bent low in homage, and all the by-standers paid reverence.

6. Although he worked all day, he could scarcely earn a living.

7. The cobbler cut out the leather one night just before he went to bed.

8. As winter drew near, Robinson Crusoe found little food in his house.

9. Robert was so pleased with the pair of shoes *which* the old cobbler showed him that he bought them at once.

10. While he was walking about the grounds, the peasant spied something sparkling in the grass.

III. *To what class would each of the following kinds of sentences belong?*

1. One containing a single statement, command, or question, and no subordinate clauses.

2. One containing one principal clause and one subordinate clause.

3. One containing one principal clause and two subordinate clauses.

4. One containing three principal clauses. Four principal clauses. Five principal clauses.

5. One containing two principal clauses and one or more subordinate clauses.

IV. *Tell which of the sentences following are compound and which are simple sentences containing co-ordinate elements:*

1. The gray light, the gloomy little area of dark grass with its border of brush, and the deathlike stillness of the vast forest, were in perfect unison. (How many separate *predicates* do you find in this sentence?)

2. His proposal was received with approval, and was carried out with the swiftness of thought.

3. It was a fine autumn day; the sky was clear and serene; and nature wore her rich and golden livery of autumn colors.

4. We all desire peace, liberty, and happiness.

5. In time of peace, the Indian is just, generous, hospitable, and modest.

6. Old Esther turned the key, withdrew it from the lock, unlocked the door, and stepped across the threshold.

7. The sharp touches of the chisel are gone; the roses have lost their leafy beauty; everything is in a state of decay.

8. The poet lives more for others than for himself; and he sacrifices enjoyments for the sake of communing with distant minds and distant ages.

101. Review

Define a declarative sentence, and give an example. Define an interrogative sentence, and give an example. What is a simple sentence? A complex sentence? A compound sentence? A compound-complex sentence? Give an example of each kind of sentence you have just defined. What kind of connectives are used to join the clauses of a compound sentence? What kind of connectives are used to join subordinate clauses to other parts of the sentence? Name ten connectives which are used to introduce subordinate clauses. How can you distinguish a simple sentence having a co-ordinate element from a compound sentence?

CHAPTER VI

VERB FORMS: THE INFINITIVE, THE PARTICIPLE, THE GERUND

102. The Infinitive

Three important verb forms are used to express *action, being, or state*, without asserting it. They are (1) infinitives; (2) participles; (3) gerunds.

Note the italicized forms in the following sentences:

To guide the party through the mountains was difficult.

The girls came *to decorate* the hall.

The order, *to fire*, was obeyed.

In each of the sentences above is a verb form preceded by the word *to*—*to guide, to decorate, to fire*. Each of these verb forms *names* an action, but it does not assert anything of a subject. Since it does not have a subject, it does not need to change its form for person and number, as verbs often must do to mark their agreement with subjects. As the verb form preceded by *to* is not limited in person and number by any subject, it is called an infinitive.

An infinitive is like a noun because it *names*. It is like a verb because it expresses action, being, or state. It may take the modifiers of a verb, and it may be completed by an object or by a predicate noun or predicate adjective.

An infinitive is a verb form preceded by *to*, which partakes of the nature of a noun and of a verb.

NOTE. The word *to* in an infinitive is called the sign of the infinitive.

EXERCISE

Name the infinitives in the following sentences. Tell in what respects each infinitive is like a verb. In what essential respect is each unlike a verb? In what respect does each one partake of the nature of a substantive?

1. To command is to obey.
2. We should learn to love our neighbors as ourselves.
3. Do you intend to go abroad this year?
4. To conquer his temper was his greatest task.
5. Endicott's aim was to preserve liberty and freedom of conscience.
6. When do you wish to return to America?

The sign of the infinitive is generally omitted after the words *bid, dare, feel, hear, help, let, make, need, see*; as,

Bid him *go* = Bid him *to go*.

I could feel my senses *leave* = I could feel my senses *to leave*.

Did you hear the burglar *enter*? = Did you hear the burglar *to enter*?

103. Uses of the Infinitive

1. Substantive Uses.

SUBJECT SUBSTANTIVE. *To promote* the welfare of our country should be our chief concern. (*To promote* is used as a substantive, because it is the *subject* of the sentence.)

PREDICATE NOMINATIVE. Our desire is *to promote* the welfare of our country. (*To promote* is used as a substantive, because it is a *predicate nominative* with the verb *is*.)

OBJECT. We hope *to promote* the welfare of our country. (*To promote* is used as a substantive, because it is the *direct object* of the verb *hope*.)

APPOSITIVE. Our aim, *to promote* the welfare of our country, has received much encouragement. (*To promote* is used as a substantive, because it is in *apposition* with the noun *aim*.)

WITH A PREPOSITION. I am about *to return*. There was nothing to do but *to go*. (*To return* and *to go* are substantives, because they are used with the prepositions *about* and *but*.)

EXCLAMATION. *To think* that he should have deserted us!

2. Adjectival Uses.

(a) This is not the time *to laugh*.

To laugh is an adjectival modifier of the noun *time*.

(b) No flowers were *to be seen*.

To be seen is used as a predicate adjective completing the verb *were*. The sentence equals the sentence, "*No flowers were visible*."

3. Adverbial Uses.

(a) The children ran *to see* the fire.

To see is an adverbial modifier of the verb *ran*. It tells *why* the children ran; that is, it expresses purpose.

(b) These roots are good *to eat*.

To eat is an adverbial modifier of the adjective *good*. It tells in *what respect* or *how* the roots are *good*.

(c) William is competent *to do* anything you please.

To do is an adverbial modifier of the adjective *competent*. It tells *how* he is competent.

(d) Mary was so trusting as *to believe* all we told her.

To believe is an adverbial infinitive showing result.

(e) Marie was grieved *to hear* of your loss.

To hear is an adverbial modifier of *grieved*. It expresses cause or reason.

(f) *To hear* him, you would think him a saint.

To hear is an adverbial infinitive expressing condition. It modifies the verb *think*.

The infinitive used to modify a noun or a pronoun has an adjectival use.

The infinitive used to modify a verb or an adjective has an adverbial use.

EXERCISE

I. Supply infinitives for the following blanks. Tell how each infinitive is used.

1. — is good exercise.
2. My fondest wish is —
3. When do you expect — the book?
4. The hunter failed — the bear.
5. This food is not fit —
6. Jessie was nowhere —
7. Why are you so eager —?
8. We study — (Use infinitive to tell why we study.)
9. It is my intention — (Use infinitive to explain the indefinite pronoun *it*.)

II. Tell how each infinitive in the following sentences is used — whether it is substantive, adjectival, or adverbial in use:

1. We hastened to resume our journey.
2. Then Margaret began to dance about in childish glee.
3. His desire to be avenged was thwarted.
4. Friends, I come not here to talk.
5. Do not rob Peter to pay Paul.
6. It was necessary to summon assistance.
7. The patient was unable to sit up.
8. A plan to capture the enemy was hastily formed.
9. Tom expected to be chosen class president.
10. Cassius prompted Brutus to join the conspiracy against Cæsar.

104. The Infinitive with Predicative Power

Certain verbs are sometimes followed by infinitive groups which resemble clauses.

1. I expect *you to obey me*.
2. His parents wished *him to be a physician*.

We can clearly see that each of the italicized groups in the preceding sentences is used as the object of the verb preceding. In sentence 1, the object of *expect* is not *you*, but *you to obey me*. In sentence 2, the object of *wished* is not *him*, but *him to be a physician*.

In each of the sentences, the infinitive with the pronoun preceding is equal to a substantive clause used as object of the verb; thus,

1. I expect *you to obey me* = I expect *that you will obey me*.
2. His parents wished *him to be a physician* = His parents wished *that he would be a physician*.

The noun or pronoun preceding the infinitive in each of the foregoing group of sentences, is used similarly to the subject of the clause which equals the infinitive group. Hence we say that the noun or pronoun preceding the infinitive, is the subject of the infinitive. The infinitive itself is used like a predicate verb. We call the infinitive with its subject an *infinitive clause*.

A group of words consisting of an infinitive and its subject, and used as the object of a verb, is an infinitive clause.

EXERCISE

I. Tell why each of the italicized groups in the following sentences is an infinitive clause. Expand each infinitive clause into an ordinary clause. Name the verbs which are completed by the infinitive clauses.

1. We wish *him to succeed*.
2. I believe the *burglar to be him*.
3. I knew *it to be her* all the time.
4. I expect *her to be a teacher*.
5. We discovered the *thief to be him*.
6. The general commanded *him to shoot*.
7. The judge declared the *accused to be guilty* of murder in the first degree.

NOTE. Verbs of *wishing, believing, knowing, expecting, commanding, declaring*, etc., are frequently completed by infinitive clauses.

II. Complete the following groups by supplying infinitive clauses in the blanks left:

1. My parents wish ——
2. The teacher believed ——

3. The captain knew ——
4. Our friends expect ——
5. The general commanded ——
6. The jury declared ——
7. I desire ——

NOTE. In the following groups of words, it is not difficult for us to see that the second phrase of each pair is the better form. The first phrase in each pair is an example of the *split infinitive*, so called because an adverb or an adverbial phrase is used between *to*, the sign of the infinitive, and the infinitive itself.

{ 1. *To incessantly rain.*

{ 2. *To rain incessantly.*

{ 1. *To almost succeed.*

{ 2. *To succeed almost, or Almost to succeed*

{ 1. *To in a measure forget.*

{ 2. *In a measure to forget or to forget in a measure.*

105. Participles

The infinitive, as we have learned, is a verb form which partakes of the properties of a verb and of a substantive. Certain other verb forms partake of the nature of a verb and of an adjective.

The trees, *waving their boughs gracefully*, seemed to beckon us to come.

The word *waving* is like a verb in these respects:

(1) It expresses action.

(2) It takes an object, *boughs*.

(3) It is modified by an adverb, *gracefully*.

The word *waving* is not a verb, because it is not a predicate; it does not *assert* anything of the boughs, but merely gives us a picture of the way the boughs looked in action. *Waving* is an adjectival modifier of the noun *boughs*. It is part verb and part adjective.

The iron, *rusted* by damp weather, was worthless.

The word *rusted* is part verb, because it implies, *not asserts*, that the iron *was rusted*, and it is modified by the adverbial phrase *by damp weather*. It is part adjective, because it modifies the noun *iron* by describing the condition of the iron. *Rusted* is part verb and part adjective.

Words which are used like the words *waving* and *rusted*, in the preceding sentences, are called *participles*, because they *partake* of the nature of a verb and an adjective.

A participle may always be expanded into a subordinate clause having *who*, *which*, or *that* as a subject; as,

The trees, *waving their boughs gracefully*, seemed to beckon us to come.

The trees, *which were waving their boughs gracefully*, etc.

A verb form which partakes of the nature of a verb and of an adjective is a participle.

A participle is always derived from a verb.

A participle may take the modifiers of a verb, and it may be followed by a direct object or by a predicate adjective or predicate substantive.

A participle always modifies a noun or a pronoun.

A participle can be expanded into a who, which, or that clause.

EXERCISE

I. Tell in what respect the italicized participles in the following sentences are (1) like verbs; (2) like adjectives:

1. The drowning boy, *clinging* to his rescuer, was saved.
2. Elsie's face, *dimpling* with laughter, formed a pleasing picture.
3. The sailor, *climbing* the mast, looked far over the sea.
4. The city, *besieged* by the foe, at last surrendered.
5. The house, *burned* to the ground, was afterward rebuilt.
6. Thomas, *having been encouraged*, did his work well.
7. *Bowing* her pride, Constance rode in Marmion's train as a horse boy.
8. The old man's figure, *bowed* with age, was a pathetic one.

II. Expand each of the participial phrases used in the sentences of Exercise I into an adjectival clause with *who*, *which*, or *that* as the subject.

106. Present and Past Participles

Some participles express action which is occurring at the same time with some other action; as,

The youth, *waving* his banner aloft, shouted "Victory!"

In this sentence, the participle *waving* expresses an action which was occurring at the same time as the action of shouting. The youth was *waving* his banner and *shouting* at the same time. Participles so used are called *present participles*.

The present participle always ends in *ing*; as, *hoping*, *writing*, *eating*, *driving*.

Many other participles express action which has been completed in the past; as,

The cherries, *gathered* this morning, are very fresh.

The time of *gathering* the cherries is past; that is, the action suggested by the participle *gathered* has been completed before the time shown by the verb *are*.

Participles used in this way, to denote completed action, are called *past participles*.

Past participles consisting of two or more words are called *phrasal past participles*; as,

Cæsar, *having been defeated*, went into winter quarters.

Having written our lesson, we were excused.

EXERCISE

I. Tell which of the italicized verb forms in the following sentences are present participles and which are past participles. Which one is a phrasal past participle?

1. The wind, *blowing* a regular hurricane, swept over the land.

2. The apples, *blown* from the trees, were lying in heaps on the ground.

3. The statue, *fallen* from its pedestal, was broken.

4. The rain, *falling* in torrents, drenched the boys to the skin.

5. Cora, *breaking* the silence, spoke words of encouragement to Alice.

6. The colt, *broken* by the cow-boy, was as docile as a lamb.

7. The ship builder, *hewing* the timbers for his ship, sang as he worked.

8. Black walnut, *hewn* in the forests of Central United States, is valuable wood.

II. Prove that each of the italicized verb forms in the sentences preceding is a participle. You may do this by expanding the group of words introduced by each participle into a *who*, *which*, or *that* clause.

107. Participial Verb Forms Used as Other Parts of Speech

The present and the past participial forms of verbs are not always used as participles. That is, verb forms ending in *ing* and those ending in *en*, *ed*, etc., are frequently used; as,

(1) parts of verbs; as,

is driving; was driven; are driven; has been driven

(2) adjectives; as,

a driving horse; a driving rain; a driven well; driven snow

(3) substantives; as,

Driving fast is forbidden.

Father objects to my *driving* fast.

The present or past participial forms, when used as parts of verbs, are always preceded by verbs like *am*, *was*, *is*, *are*, *were*, *has been*, *has*, *have*, *had*, *will be*, etc.; as,

am writing, had written, had been written, will be writing

The present or past participial forms, when used as mere adjectives, always precede the words which they modify; as,

eating apples; worm-*eaten* fruit; *freezing* air; *frozen* custard

A participial form used as a mere adjective, as in the example preceding, can not take an adverbial modifier or an object, as the participle may, and it can not be expanded into an adjectival *who*, *which*, or *that* clause, as may any participial phrase.

EXERCISE

I. Which of the italicized expressions in the following sentences are used as parts of verbs? Which are used as mere adjectives? Which as present participles? Which as past participles?

1. Sanitary *drinking* cups have been placed in our school.
2. *Drinking* deeply from the cup of cold water, the wounded knight sank back in the monk's arms.
3. The oxen *were* eagerly *drinking* from the trough.
4. The stag at eve *had drunk* his fill.
5. Water *drunk* from a spring tastes cooler.
6. The *swollen* tide rushed in upon us.
7. The *swelling* waves rose higher and higher.
8. The tide, *swollen* by the wind, rushed in upon us.
9. The waves, *swelling* with the wind, splashed over the deck.
10. The tide *was swollen* with the wind.
11. The waves *were swelling* higher and higher.

II. Write the present and the past participial forms of the following verbs:

sing, fling, forget, bend, eat, steal, laugh, weave, write, slay, stray, take, ring, drink, wear, rise, come, see, sit, do, fly.

III. Use in sentences each of the forms you have written

- (1) as a part of a verb.
- (2) as a mere adjective.
- (3) as a participle.

108. The Past Participle Distinguished from a Verb

Many past participial forms of verbs are the same as the simple past forms; as,

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
bring	brought	brought
buy	bought	bought
lead	led	led

All verbs, ending in *ed* to show past time, have the same forms for the past and the past participle; as, *hope, hoped, hoped; hate, hated, hated*.

We may easily distinguish a past participle from a verb having the same form in these ways:

(1) Determine whether or not the form used is a predicate verb — whether or not it asserts or asks. If it *does assert* or *ask*, it is a *predicate* verb; as,

Frank *spent* all his money.

(2) Note whether or not there is a helping verb before the verb form in question. If words like *am, was, is, are, were, has, have been, will be*, etc., precede the verb form, it is generally a part of the verb; as,

Irene *has strung* the beads which you gave her.

(3) Try to expand the form used into a *who, which*,

or *that* clause. If the word can be thus expanded, it is a participle; as,

The money { *spent* for the whistle was really wasted
 which was spent, etc.

EXERCISE

I. Which of the italicized words in the following sentences are verbs, or verb phrases, and which are past participles?

1. John *educated* his brother.
2. My brother *was educated* by Uncle John.
3. My brother, *educated* for the ministry, afterwards became a lawyer.
4. A man *loved* by all who knew him — such was Lincoln. (Loved = who was loved.)
5. The rose *was plucked* from its stem.
6. Rosemary *plucked* the flower.
7. The rose, *plucked* from its stem, soon withered and died.

II. Which of the italicized verb forms used in the following sentences are verbs or verb phrases? Which are mere adjectives? Which are present participles? Which are past participles?

1. James *was eating* his breakfast.
2. The cow, *having eaten* too much corn, died.
3. An *eating* acid was applied to the ink stain.
4. The fruit, *gathered* from the orchard, was delicious.
5. The fruit *was gathered* from the orchard.
6. The *gathered* sheaves were placed in the barn.
7. The *gathering* storm broke with fury.
8. A storm, *gathering* in the west, turned our thoughts homeward.

9. *Struggling* violently against the attacks of the dog, the deer at last freed itself.

10. The deer *was struggling* violently against the attacks of the dog.

11. Anger, *struggled* against, must yield.

12. The *struggling* animal at last freed itself.

109. Gerunds

The present participial form of the verb may, as we have learned, be used; as,

(1) a part of a verb phrase; as, *am writing*, etc.

(2) a mere adjective; as, *a writing* machine.

(3) a participle; as, Sarah, *writing* her lesson, was busy an hour.

The verb form in *ing* may have, in addition to these three uses, the uses of a substantive.

1. *Driving* an automobile faster than ten miles an hour is forbidden.

2. The law forbids *driving* an automobile faster than ten miles an hour.

3. The chauffeur was accused of *driving* his automobile too fast.

In each of the preceding sentences the verb form in *ing* — *driving* — is used as a substantive. In the first sentence, it is *subject* of the verb *is forbidden*. In the second, it is *object* of the verb *forbids*. In the third, it is used with the preposition *of*.

In addition to its substantive use in each sentence, *driving* is like a verb in these respects:

- (1) It expresses action.
- (2) It takes an object, *automobile*.
- (3) It takes an adverbial modifier, *faster than ten miles an hour*.

A verb form which ends in *ing* and which partakes of the nature of a verb and of a substantive is called a gerund.

The verb form in *ing* is sometimes used as a mere substantive, without any thought of verbal action or feeling; as,

Reading, writing, and arithmetic are sometimes called the three R's.

EXERCISE

I. Which of the verb forms in *ing*, used in the following sentences are gerunds? Why is each one a gerund? Which are mere substantives?

1. The *singing* was delightful.
2. *Singing* patriotic songs was their delight.
3. The clever *reading* of the play gained the author much fame.
4. *Reading* the play with good effect gained the author much fame.
5. *Eating* rich food is harmful.
6. The proof of the pudding is in the *eating*.
7. Mother objects to my *playing* golf.
8. *Playing* golf is good exercise.
9. The *playing* of golf originated in Scotland.

II. Which of the verb forms in *ing*, used in the following sentences, are gerunds? Which are participles?

NOTE. Remember that a participle may be expanded into *who*, *which*, or *that* clause. A gerund can never be thus expanded.

1. Writing a business letter neatly was the thing which secured me the position.
2. The clerk, writing busily, did not look up.
3. Striking his friend a severe blow, Joe angrily departed.
4. Joe was charged with striking his friend a severe blow.
5. We saw a large lion springing at a panther.
6. Fred told us of his springing from the high dock into the rough water below.

110. Review

Name three verb forms. What kind of verb forms are infinitives? Participles? Gerunds? By what word, usually used as a sign, may we recognize the infinitive? After what special verbs is the sign of the infinitive generally omitted? Name four ways in which the infinitive may be used as a substantive. Give an example of each way. Give three sentences, in each of which an infinitive is used as an adjectival modifier. Three in which an infinitive is used as an adverbial modifier of a verb. Three in which the infinitive is used as an adverbial modifier of an adjective. How may we tell a participial form used as a mere adjective from one used as a participle? Give an example of each. How may we tell a past participle from a past verb having the same form? Give an example of each. How may we distinguish a gerund from a present participle? Give an example of each. How may we distinguish a verb form used as a mere substantive from a gerund? Give examples to show the difference.

CHAPTER VII

REVIEW OF CASE

111. The Nominative

Nouns or pronouns used in the nominative case may be:

- (1) *Subject substantive*; as, *Raphael* was born in 1483.
- (2) *Predicate substantive*; as, He was a great *painter*.
- (3) *Noun of address*; as, *Warriors*, avenge your wrongs.
- (4) *Exclamatory noun*; as, *Fire! Fire!*
- (5) *Appositive*; as, King Philip, an Indian *chief*, engaged in war. That man was Raleigh, the great *explorer*.

Observe the uses of the italicized noun in the following sentence:

The *train* having been delayed, the passengers remained in the city over night.

The word *train* in this sentence has none of the five uses which we have already learned. *Train* may seem at first glance to be the subject of the sentence. It is *not* a subject, however, as nothing is asserted of the train. The phrase in which the word *train* stands is used independently of the rest of the sentence and may be called an *absolute phrase*.

A noun or pronoun used as the principal word in an

independent or *absolute phrase* is called a *nominative absolute*.

The barn doors are closed, the *wheat* having all been gathered in.

The word *wheat* in this sentence is used as a part of the absolute phrase, *the wheat having been gathered in*. It is not grammatically connected with the statement *The barn doors are closed*. Since *wheat* is used independently with a modifying participle, we call it a *nominative absolute*.

A phrase consisting of a noun or pronoun followed by a modifying participle, and used independently of the rest of the sentence is called an absolute phrase.

A noun or a pronoun used absolutely, or independently, with a modifying participle is in the nominative case.

EXERCISE

I. Tell why each of the italicized nouns in the following sentences is in the nominative case:

1. The *evening* having passed away, the guests departed for their homes. (Is *evening* a subject?)

2. The *supply* of food having been exhausted, the steward ordered more.

3. The *supply*, having been exhausted, was renewed.

Note that the word *supply* has a different use in the two sentences above. In which is it used independently? In which is it used as subject of the verb?

4. Margaret, her *cheeks* tingling with excitement, burst in upon us.

5. The *clouds*, having vanished, left a clear, blue sky.

6. The *clouds* having vanished, our picnic plans were joyfully completed.

II. *The six different ways in which nouns and pronouns may be used in the nominative case are illustrated in the following sentences. Point out the nominatives, and tell why each is nominative.*

1. Leonardo da Vinci, a great Italian painter, was also a great architect.

2. Hugh, please return my pencil.

3. You! you! you! you are guilty.

4. The moon having risen, we continued our journey.

5. The Greeks! the Greeks! they come! they come!

6. It was he. No, it was she. No, no, it was I.

7. Roll on, thou dark blue ocean, roll!

8. Frank limped along, Pedro following.

III. *Illustrate in sentences each way in which a noun or pronoun may be used in the nominative case.*

IV. *Supply nominative forms of pronouns for the blanks left in the following sentences, and tell why the nominative form is necessary. Do not use forms of you.*

1. — and I are good friends.

2. — and — are my cousins.

3. It was — who did it.

4. Was it — or — who broke the plate?

5. May — and — go to the grocery?

V. *Choose between the nominative and accusative forms of pronouns used in parentheses in the following sentences:*

1. (Him and me) (he and I) went to school together.

2. Was it (him) (he) who whispered?

3. No, it was (I) (me).
4. May Mary and (me) (I) pass the books?
5. (Her and him) (he and she) are disagreed.

112. The Accusative Case

Nouns or pronouns used in the accusative case may be:

(1) *Object*; that is, *direct object of a transitive verb*; as, Horace built a little *aeroplane*.

(2) *With a preposition*; as, *To thee* we sing.

(3) *An appositive*, used to explain another noun in the accusative case; as, Ruskin admired Rossetti, an English poet and painter. We traveled on to Palestine, the *Holy Land*.

NOTE. A noun or pronoun used in apposition always takes the case of the noun or pronoun which it explains.

EXERCISE

Pick out the accusative nouns and pronouns in the following sentences, and tell why each is used in the accusative case:

1. Time and tide wait for no man.
2. I bring you tidings of great joy.
3. Have you given mother an explanation?
4. Sing us a song of the olden time.
5. Lend Paul your book.
6. Despise not the day of small things.
7. Exercise the body daily.
8. How dare you address me, the King of France, in this fashion?
9. If thy brother smite thee upon the right cheek, turn to him the left.

113. The Adjunct Accusative

Verbs of *making, choosing, electing, appointing, constituting, or naming, and calling*, are frequently followed by a *direct object* and, in addition, by an *adjunct accusative*.

Our club chose Helen *chairman*.

The noun *Helen* is the direct object of the verb. It tells *whom* the club chose. The noun *chairman* is called an *adjunct accusative*, because it helps to complete the verb *chose*, and at the same time explains the direct object *Helen* by telling *what* the club chose Helen to be.

A noun which helps to complete a verb of choosing, making, electing, naming, etc., and which also explains the direct object, is called an adjunct accusative.

A noun used as an adjunct accusative is in the accusative case.

NOTE. The word *adjunct* means *joined to*. The *adjunct accusative* is an *additional* accusative *joined to* a preceding accusative.

In one respect, a noun used as an adjunct accusative after verbs of *choosing, naming, calling*, etc., resembles a noun used in apposition with a direct object.

The people elected Garfield *president*. (Adj. Accus.)

The people loved Garfield, our *president*. (Appositive.)

In both examples above, the word *president* refers to the direct object *Garfield*. Yet, in the two examples, there is an important difference in the uses of the word *president*. In the first, it not only refers to the direct

object, but helps to complete the verb *elected*. In the second, it simply explains the direct object by telling who Garfield was. It is not necessary in any way to the predicate *loved*, which is fully completed by the direct object *Garfield*.

EXERCISE

I. *Name the direct object and also the adjunct accusative which complete each of the verbs in the following sentences:*

1. The basket-ball team chose me umpire.
2. The Spaniards called our country America.
3. The directors appointed Harvey manager.
4. Why did they name the baby Bob?
5. The choir made Josephine organist.
6. The French nation once styled their rulers kings.
7. The Atlas Engine Works have made me foreman.
8. The William Morris Club elected Arthur secretary.

II. *Tell which of the nouns in the following sentences are used as adjunct accusatives and which are used in apposition with the direct objects:*

1. The Merchants' Association appointed Mr. Brown treasurer.
2. They discharged Mr. Brown, the treasurer of the company.
3. The boys called Tim a coward. •
4. We dislike Tim, the coward in the story.
5. Douglas made De Wilton a knight.
6. In the first combat, Marmion defeated De Wilton, a knight of high rank.
7. The Columbia Club entertained General Durbin, a former governor of the state.

114. The Accusative, Subject of the Infinitive

We wish *him* to be an architect.

The pronoun *him* in this sentence is not the object of the verb *wish*, as we might at first suppose; it is the subject of the infinitive *to be*. We do not wish *him*; we wish *him to be an architect*. The entire group of words following the verb is the object of *wish*. Since the group, with its infinitive preceded by a pronoun, resembles a clause, we call it an *infinitive clause*. We call the pronoun which precedes the infinitive *the subject of the infinitive*, because it bears the same relation to the infinitive which it would bear to the predicate of an equivalent clause. For example, in the sentences,

(1) We wish *him to be an architect*.

(2) We wish *that he may become an architect*.

the pronoun *him* bears the same relation to the infinitive *to be* in the first sentence as does the pronoun *he* to the verb *may become* in the second sentence.

Verbs of wishing, believing, expecting, seeing, hearing, feeling, commanding, declaring, and the like are frequently completed by infinitive clauses.

A noun or pronoun used as the subject of an infinitive is in the accusative case.

EXERCISE

Pick out the infinitive clauses in the following sentences, and name the subject of each clause. In what case is the subject of the infinitive in each sentence?

1. No one believed her to be a genius.
2. The hostess asked us to remain for dinner.
3. We knew the thief to be him.
4. Did you believe it to be her?
5. No, I believed it to be him.
6. They requested me to be secretary.
7. We supposed him to be a friend.

115. Predicate Substantive of the Infinitive *To Be*

A noun or pronoun completing the infinitive *to be* is in the nominative case except when the infinitive takes a subject; as,

Should you like *to be a missionary*?

I should like *to be she*.

Would you wish *to be he*?

The infinitives in these sentences do not have subjects. The words completing the infinitives *to be* refer to the subjects of the verbs *should like* and *would wish*. Hence they are used in the nominative case.

An infinitive used with a subject is often completed by a noun or pronoun in the accusative case, as in these examples.

They believed *it to be him*.

We knew the *prisoner to be her*.

The infinitives in these sentences are used with subjects. In the first sentence the subject is the pronoun *it*: in the second, the subject is the noun *prisoner*. Since these subjects are in the *accusative case*, the pronouns following *to be* are also in the *accusative case*.

A noun or pronoun following *to be* or forms of *to be* has the same case as the subject preceding *to be*.

116. Other Uses of the Accusative Case

Other ways in which nouns and pronouns may be used in the accusative case are:

(1) *Object of an infinitive* formed from a transitive verb; as, *To love thy neighbor as thyself* is sometimes difficult.

(2) *Object of a participle* formed from a transitive verb; as, *Mounting his horse*, the robber rode away.

(3) *Object of a gerund*; as, *Eating* poorly cooked food is injurious.

(4) *Adverbial accusative*; as, Arthur walked a mile. Belle worked an hour. David weighs ninety pounds.

NOTE. Nouns used adverbially to denote time, distance, and measure are in the accusative case.

EXERCISE

I. Fill the blanks in the following sentences with nominative and accusative forms of the pronouns I, he, she, we, and they. Give reason for each nominative and accusative form which you supply.

1. Frank bade — and — study more diligently.
2. Please let Horace and — sit together to study.
3. How did you know the speaker to be —?

NOTE. Remember that *to be* with a subject always takes the accusative case after it.

4. Would you like to be —?

NOTE. *To be* in this sentence does not have a subject.

5. I knew all along that the halloween ghost was ——
6. Was it —— who told the secret?
7. No, it was neither —— nor ——; it was ——

II. *Use who or whom in each of the following blanks, and tell why you use the nominative or accusative form:*

1. —— do men say that I am?

NOTE. Before filling the blank above, think the sentence in its natural order; as, Men do say, etc.

2. —— do you wish to see? (Think the sentence in natural order.)

3. The minister —— we expected to arrive did not come.

4. The speaker —— we expected to deliver the address disappointed us.

5. The man —— they believed to be guilty is hiding.

NOTE. In each of the three preceding sentences, the pronoun to be supplied is the *subject of the infinitive*, not the *object* of the verb *expect* or *believe*. That is, the pronoun belongs to the infinitive clause which completes the verb. In what case is the subject of the infinitive?

6. The man —— they say is guilty is still in hiding.

NOTE. The pronoun to be supplied in this sentence belongs to the relative clause which completes the verb *say*. The pronoun is not the object of the verb *say*, but the subject of the verb in the relative clause. In what case is the subject of a verb?

7. —— did you believe me to be?

NOTE. The sentence in its natural order reads, *You believe me to be ——*. What case follows *to be* when *to be* is preceded by a subject?

8. She is one of the girls — they say are to go to the Philippines to teach.

9. The beggar — we met on the way begged piteously for alms.

10. The physician — we believed would effect a cure was unsuccessful.

11. The stranger — I took to be my sister-in-law was not related to me.

12. — were the maskers supposed to be?

117. The Dative Case

The indirect object of a verb is a noun or a pronoun used to show *to* or *for whom* or *what* something is done; as,

Father bought *Tom* [for Tom] a pony.

Mother gave *me* [to me] good advice.

Uncle loaned *George* [to George] his knife.

The club voted *Ben* [for Ben] a reward.

The italicized nouns and pronoun are used as indirect objects of the preceding verbs, to show *to* or *for* whom something was *given*, or *bought*, or *loaned*, etc.

Nouns used as indirect objects are said to be in the dative case.

EXERCISE

Point out, in the following sentences, the nouns and pronouns used in the dative case:

1. We took father his dinner.
2. We sang the children a song.
3. Bring me a good book from the library.
4. We gave our teacher a fountain pen.

5. The people voted their ruler a crown.
6. My employer allowed me five dollars.
7. We wish you a happy New Year.
8. We gave the speaker a rousing welcome.

118. The Genitive Case

Point out in the following sentences the possessive forms of nouns which denote possession. Point out the similar forms which do not denote possession, but source or authorship or measure or kind.

1. Lydia's manner is gentle.
2. The committee's report was favorable.
3. We made a three days' journey.
4. Sloan's liniment is very pungent.
5. The ocean's roar reached our ears.
6. Poe's stories are weird and fascinating.
7. Mother's purse was stolen.
8. The *Boys' Club* was organized by Miss Graydon.
9. The girls' mittens were lost.
10. Men's clothing is less expensive than women's clothing.

Nouns denoting possession are in the genitive case.

Nouns of possessive form, denoting source, authorship, measure, or kind, are in the genitive case.

A genitive showing possession is called a possessive genitive.

A genitive denoting some sort of connection, but not possession, is called a genitive of connection.

EXERCISE

Tell which of the genitives in the preceding sentences are genitives of possession. Tell which are genitives of connection.

119. Possessive Forms before Gerunds

Father opposed Paul's going to Europe.

In this sentence, *going* is a gerund used as the object of the verb *opposed*. It is modified by the genitive noun *Paul's*, just as the equivalent word *departure* is modified in the sentence,

Father opposed Paul's departure for Europe.

In the latter sentence, we should not think of using the nominative form before the noun *departure*; we should not say, *Father opposed Paul departure*. With the gerund, however, we often use incorrectly the common form of a noun or pronoun instead of the genitive form. We carelessly say, *Father opposed Paul going to Europe* instead of *Paul's going*, etc.

I had not heard of *his giving* so large a sum.

In this sentence, the word *giving* is a gerund used with the preposition *of*. It is modified by the possessive adjective *his*, just as the equivalent word *gift* is modified in this sentence:

I had not heard of *his gift*, etc.

In the latter sentence, we should not say, *I had not heard of him gift*, etc.; yet when we use the gerund *giving*, we are likely to say, *I had not heard of him giving*, etc.

A noun or an adjective used before a gerund is intended to tell *whose* action, *whose* giving, or going, or being, or reading, etc., is named by the gerund.

A genitive noun or a possessive adjective, not an accusative noun or pronoun, may precede a gerund.

EXERCISE

Choose between the accusative and the possessive forms given in parentheses in the following sentences. Before making your choice, determine carefully which forms in ing are gerunds and which are participles.

1. Why do you object to (my) (me) going?
2. (Him) (his) writing the letter so neatly secured him the position.
3. Who ever would have thought of (their) (them) failing in business?
4. Frank wrote of (his) (him) going through the National Park.
5. We did not know of the (farmer's) (farmer) going to town.
6. I hated (Ben) (Ben's) failing in his work.
7. We regret (you) (your) being in poor health.

CHAPTER VIII

INFLECTION OF THE VERB: VOICE, MOOD, TENSE

Any change made in the form of a word to denote a different meaning or use is called *inflection*.

Verbs frequently change their forms to denote different meanings and uses. The verb *play* denotes an action occurring in the *present time*; *played* an action which has occurred in *past time*. If we use this same verb in the present with the pronoun *I* as subject, we must say, *I play*; if we use *he* as subject, we must say, *He plays*.

120. The Active and the Passive Voice

A transitive verb, as we have learned, expresses an action or condition which affects some person or thing. That is, a transitive verb always suggests not only a person or thing which *does*, or *thinks*, or *feels* something, but also a person or thing which *receives the action*, or *is affected by the thought or feeling*.

When we wish to make prominent in a sentence the *doer* of an action, we use one form of the verb; when we wish to emphasize the *receiver* of the action rather than the *doer*, we use another form of the verb.

1. *Bob* wounded the bear. (The doer, *Bob*, is emphasized.)
2. The *bear* was wounded by *Bob*. (The receiver, *bear*, is emphasized.)

This distinction in the use of a transitive verb to show which is more prominent — the *actor* or the *receiver* — is called *voice*.

1. Wilbur Wright *built* the first airship.

The verb *built* in this sentence denotes both a *doer* and a *receiver*, an *inventor* and a *thing invented*. The *doer*, by being named in the subject, is made more prominent in the sentence than the *receiver*. Because the *active* agent is thus emphasized, we say that the verb is in the *active voice*.

2. The first airship *was built* by Wilbur Wright.

The verb *was built*, like the verb *built* in sentence 1, denotes both a *doer* and a *receiver*. In the second sentence, however, it is the *receiver*, the *thing built*, which is made prominent by being named in the subject. Because the *receiver* or *passive* agent is thus emphasized, we say that the verb is in the *passive voice*.

Voice is that property of a transitive verb which shows whether the subject names the doer or the receiver of an action.

When the subject of a transitive verb names the doer of an action, the verb is in the active voice.

When the subject of a transitive verb denotes the receiver of an action, the verb is in the passive voice.

NOTE. Since transitive verbs are the only verbs which denote both active and passive agents, transitive verbs are the only ones which have voice.

EXERCISE

In which of the following sentences is the active agent or doer named in the subject? In which is the passive agent or receiver named in the subject? In what voice is each verb used?

1. Hamilton and Burr fought a duel.
2. A fierce battle was waged by the Indians.
3. The ship was steered by an experienced pilot.
4. The wind blew down many trees.
5. Many trees were struck by lightning.
6. The storm gathered strength.
7. Our strength was renewed by a good meal.
8. The assassin shot President McKinley.
9. The assassin was arrested by the chief of police.
10. The skillful oarsman rowed the boat through rough waters.

121. Formation of the Passive Voice

The passive voice of a verb is formed by placing before the past participle some form of the verb *to be*; *as, is bent; had been ridden; am being educated; was wounded; were taught.*

Whenever a sentence containing a verb in the *active voice* is changed to an equivalent sentence, with the same verb used in the *passive voice*, a number of important changes occur in the sentence itself, as well as in the form of the verb.

1. John *made* the box. (Active voice.)
2. The box *was made* by John. (Passive voice.)
3. Fire *destroyed* our house. (Active voice.)
4. Our house *was destroyed* by fire. (Passive voice.)

In the second and fourth sentences, the verbs used in the first and third have been changed to the passive voice. As a result, the following changes have occurred:

1. The verb has become a passive verb phrase consisting of the past participle with the helping verb *was* prefixed.

2. The object of the verb in the active voice has become the subject of the verb in the passive voice.

3. The subject of the verb in the active voice has become the substantive following the preposition *by*.

EXERCISE

I. *In which of the following sentences is the doer of an action named in the subject? In what part of these same sentences is the receiver of the action named? In what voice are the verbs used?*

In which of the sentences is the receiver of the action named by the subject? In what part of these sentences is the doer named? In what voice are the verbs used?

1. James made a beautiful drawing.
2. The teacher punished the boy.
3. The Angelus was painted by Millet.
4. The wind lifted the waves.
5. The sea was swollen by the winds.
6. The house was guarded by a policeman.
7. The collision wrecked the car.
8. The maid swept the room.

II. *Answer the following questions. Let your answers be given in full.*

1. In a sentence concerning the killing of a deer, I wish to emphasize the *receiver* of the action expressed by the verb.

In what part of the sentence must I name the *receiver*? In what part must I name the *doer* of the action? In what *voice* must I use the transitive verb? How must I form this *voice*?

2. In another sentence concerning the killing of the deer, I wish to make the *doer* more prominent than the *receiver* of the action. In what part of the sentence must I name the *doer*? In what part must I name the *receiver*? In what *voice* must I use the verb?

III. Write sentences using the following verbs in the *active voice*:

slay, plant, write, drive, pierced, amputated,
punished, struck, committed, ate

IV. Reconstruct the sentences which you have written, changing the verbs to the *passive voice*. Tell all the changes which occur in each sentence and in the verb as a result of using the *passive voice*.

122. Passive Verbs Distinguished from Predicate Adjectives

A verb in the *passive voice* is always a verb phrase consisting of the past participle with *is*, *was*, *were*, *has been*, or some other form of the verb *to be* prefixed. However, a past participle which follows a helping verb like these, is not always a part of a verb phrase. It is sometimes a *predicate adjective* used after a linking verb.

Mary *was educated* by her father.

In this sentence, the past participle *educated* forms a part of a verb phrase, *was educated*, which is used in

the passive voice. We may know that *educated* is a part of the passive verb, because it is followed by a prepositional phrase introduced by the preposition *by*. The object of *by* names a *doer*, *father*. Hence we know that the word *educated* expresses *action* and must therefore be a part of the verb.

Mary was highly *educated*.

In this sentence, the word *educated* shows a condition belonging to Mary, *not an action performed by some one and affecting Mary*. It is not a part of a passive verb. It is merely a predicate adjective following the linking verb *was*.

A past participle used after a linking verb, and expressing a condition belonging to the person or thing named by the subject, is a predicate adjective, not a part of a passive verb.

EXERCISE

Tell which of the italicized words in the following sentences are parts of passive verbs and which are mere predicate adjectives:

1. The tree was *bent* by the storm.
2. The tree was crooked and *bent*.
3. Hutoka was *accomplished* as a nurse.
4. A wonderful feat was *accomplished* by the aviator.
5. The hall was *lighted* by electricity.
6. The hall was well *lighted* and heated.
7. The trout was nicely *baked*.
8. The trout was *baked* by the head cook.
9. Harry's coat was *torn* by the dog.
10. Harry's coat was badly *torn*.

123. Nouns or Pronouns Used after Verbs in the Passive Voice

The object of the verb in the *active voice* becomes the subject of the same verb changed to the *passive*. This usually leaves the passive verb a verb of *complete predication*; that is, it does not require an object or a predicate substantive to complete its meaning, as,

1. Miss Stacy *used* our typewriter.
2. Our typewriter *was used* by Miss Stacy.

Sometimes, however, a transitive verb in the active voice requires, in addition to the direct object, an adjunct accusative to complete its meaning. For example, verbs of *making*, *choosing*, *electing*, *naming*, etc., frequently take, in addition to the direct object, an *adjunct accusative*; as,

The committee chose Allen *chairman*.

Allen is the direct object, and *chairman* is an adjunct accusative noun, helping to complete the active verb *chose*.

Leslie whittled the stick *straight*.

The active verb *whittled* is completed by both the direct object *stick* and the adjunct accusative adjective *straight*, which modifies the noun *stick*.

When these same verbs of *making*, *choosing*, *electing*, *naming*, etc., are changed to the *passive voice*, the words used as adjunct accusatives in the active voice, become predicate nominatives or predicate adjectives.

Allen was made *chairman*. (Predicate nominative)

The stick was made *straight*. (Predicate adjective.)

Verbs of making, choosing, electing, naming, etc., may, when they are used in the active voice, be completed both by a direct object and by an adjunct accusative noun or adjective.

When verbs of making, choosing, electing, naming, etc., are changed to the passive voice, the adjunct accusative noun or adjective used with the active voice becomes a mere predicate nominative or a predicate adjective.

EXERCISE

Point out in the following sentences the adjunct accusative nouns and adjectives.

Reconstruct the sentences, using the verbs in the passive voice. Point out in the sentences you have made, the predicate nominatives and the predicate adjectives.

1. The governor appointed Mr. Griffith special judge.
2. The people elected Madison president.
3. Mother named me Alice in honor of a favorite aunt.
4. His followers styled him king.
5. Maurice made the board smooth.
6. Flowers made the room cheerful.
7. Our neighbors have painted their house green.
8. Washing turned the dress white.
9. Why did you choose Anna organist?
10. Did you sweep the floor clean?
11. The elm tree grew tall and straight.

NOTE. The verbs *have painted*, *turned*, and *sweep* are used in the same sense as the verb *make*. In the seventh, eighth, and tenth sentences, we could substitute some form of *make* for the verbs used. Hence the adjectives are predicate accusative adjectives, and must become predicate adjectives after the passive verbs.

124. Secondary Object with Verbs of Asking and Teaching

Verbs of *asking* and *teaching* sometimes take two objects. The first is called the *direct object*; the second is called the *secondary object*.

Mrs. Beal *taught* me grammar.

In this sentence, the verb *taught* is completed by two objects. The first object, *me*, names directly the person taught; the second, *grammar*, names the thing taught.

John *asked* George a foolish question.

In this sentence, the verb *asked* is completed by the objects *George* and *question*. The first and direct object names the *person* asked; the second, a secondary object, the *thing* asked.

If we change the verbs *taught* and *asked* in the preceding sentences to the passive voice, we must make one of the objects in each case the subject, retaining the other as object; as,

I was taught grammar by Mrs. Beal.

Grammar was taught me by Mrs. Beal.

George was asked a foolish question by John.

A foolish question was asked George by John.

Verbs of asking and teaching used in the active voice may take two objects, a direct object and a secondary object.

When verbs of asking and teaching are changed to the passive voice, either the direct or the secondary objects used in the active may be retained as direct objects, the others becoming the subjects.

Direct objects and secondary objects retained with verbs in the passive voice are in the accusative case.

Indirect objects retained in the passive voice are in the dative case.

EXERCISE

Point out the nouns and pronouns used to complete the verbs in the following sentences. Give the case of each noun and pronoun.

1. The class chose me secretary.
2. I was chosen secretary.
3. Professor James taught Ralph engineering.
4. Ralph was taught engineering.
5. The acid turned the marble dark.
6. The marble was turned dark by the acid.
7. I asked him only the necessary questions.
8. Only the necessary questions were asked him.
9. He was asked only the necessary questions.
10. A beautiful horse was sent the king.

125. Mood of Verbs

Verbs express *action*, *being*, or *state* in different ways.

France is a republic.

In this sentence, the verb is used in asserting a *fact*.

When *did* Balboa discover the Pacific Ocean?

In this sentence, the verb is used in asking a question in regard to a *fact*.

Be truthful; *do not deceive* me.

In this sentence, the *manner* of the verb is *imperative*; that is, the verb expresses a *command* or *request*.

If I *were* a reindeer, I'd gallop o'er the snow.

The verb in this sentence does not express a fact. It expresses something imagined but not realized.

The way in which a verb expresses *action*, *being*, or *state* is called *mood*.

The mood of a verb is the manner or the way in which it expresses action, being, or state.

A verb which is used in asserting a fact or in asking a question about a fact is in the *indicative mood*; as,

Isaac Newton *discovered* the law of gravitation.

Do you fear the consequences?

A verb which expresses something thought of, *but not a fact*, is in the *subjunctive mood*; as,

If he *were* here (meaning he is *not* here), he would help.

I wish I *were* in England.

The verb which gives a direct *command* or makes a direct *request* or *entreaty* is in the *imperative mood*; as,

Reverse the engine at once.

Come to see us to-morrow.

126. The Indicative Mood

A verb is in the indicative mood when it is used in stating facts or in asking questions about facts.

The facts expressed by the indicative mood may be *real facts*, or they may be *assumed facts*.

Potash *is used* as a fertilizer.

William of Normandy *was called* William the Conqueror.

In each of these sentences the italicized verb phrase or verb expresses a real fact.

It is raining here to-day.

Well, if it *is raining*, I *am going* anyway.

David *was* a high-tempered lad.

If David *was* high-tempered, he *was*, nevertheless, generally *liked*.

In each of these sentences also, the italicized verb phrase or verb is in the indicative mood, because it expresses a real fact. Even in the clauses introduced by *if*, the verbs express something *actually true*.

If apples *are selling* at one dollar a bushel, how many bushels may be bought for ten dollars?

The verb phrase *are selling* is used in the sentence to express an assumed fact. The condition thought of is assumed to be true, simply for the sake of the problem.

The facts expressed by the indicative mood may be either real or assumed.

The conditional conjunction if is frequently used with verbs in the indicative mood.

127. The Subjunctive Mood

A verb is in the subjunctive mood when it expresses an action, being, or state not thought of as a fact; as,

If I *were* president, I should not tolerate such a law.

The verb *were* in the conditional clause, *If I were president*, is in the subjunctive mood, because it expresses a condition which is contrary to fact; the clause clearly tells that I am *not president*.

Though I *were* the emperor himself, I should dress in plainest clothing.

The verb *were* is in the subjunctive mood, because it expresses a condition contrary to fact.

I *wish* I were king.

O, that I *were* king.

In each of these sentences, the verb *were* is in the subjunctive mood, because it expresses a *wish*, not a *fact*.

Every one *rise*.

Let us *begin* our work early.

This *be* the verse they grave for me.

Thou *shalt* not *bear* false witness against thy neighbor.

The italicized verbs and verb phrases in these sentences are in the subjunctive mood, because they express *not facts*, but *volitions*. That is, they tell what the speaker *wills* to be done.

The subjunctive mood is used to express a volition, a wish, or a condition contrary to fact.

EXERCISE

Tell which of the verbs used in the following sentences are in the indicative mood, and which are in the subjunctive mood.

1. If Mr. Wilson *is* president, he does not have unlimited power because of the restrictions of Congress.

2. If I *were* you, I would not give way to my temper in that fashion.

3. If it *was* raining (meaning it was), we had a fine time at the picnic.

4. If it *were* raining (meaning that it is not), I should stay at home.

5. Though he *were* the emperor himself, I should defy him.

6. Though Paul *was* ill, he took the examination.

7. "If wheat *were* cheaper, we should buy several hundred bushels this week," said the merchant.

8. If apples *are selling* at seventy-five cents a bushel (assuming it as a fact that they are selling at that price), how many bushels may be bought for twenty dollars?

9. Let us *arise* and *defend* our regrets.

10. Thou shalt not steal.

128. The Imperative Mood

A verb is in the imperative mood when it expresses one's will in the form of a command, a request, or an entreaty, addressed *directly* to some one; as,

Bring all your friends with you.

When volition is otherwise expressed, the verb is in the subjunctive mood.

A verb in the imperative mood may be used only with subjects of the *second person*.

Second Person

Be *ye* ready (Imperative).

Second Person

(You) Sing anthems of praise (Imperative).

Second Person

(You) Strike while the iron is hot (Imperative).

A verb in the subjunctive mood, used to express one's will, may be used with subjects of the *first*, *second*, or *third person*; as,

First Person

Let *us* leave no stone unturned (Subjunctive).

Second Person

Thou shalt not kill (Subjunctive).

Third Person

Let all *men* be ready (Subjunctive).

EXERCISE

Distinguish between the italicized verbs of the imperative and of the subjunctive moods in the following sentences:

1. *Turn* to the right = *You* turn to the right.
2. Let us *turn* to the right = *We* must turn to the right.
3. *Turn* we to the right = *We* must turn to the right.
4. Every one *turn* to the right = Every one must turn to the right.
5. Let all *climb* to the top = All must climb to the top.
6. Let each to-morrow *find* us farther than to-day = Each to-morrow should find, etc.
7. *Fling* out your banner to the sky = *You* fling, etc.
8. Let us *fling* aside our weapons = *We* must fling, etc.
9. I will *go* no matter what happens.
10. *Go* to the ant, thou sluggard = *You* go, etc.
11. You *shall* obey me.

When the helping word *let* is followed by a noun or a pronoun of the first or third person, the verb following is used in the subjunctive mood.

129. Words Denoting Indicative Mood Ideas

- | | | |
|----------------|---|---|
| 1. Future fact | { | (a) <i>Shall</i> , in the first person.
We <i>shall be</i> glad to see you. |
| | { | (b) <i>Will</i> , in the second and third person.
You <i>will be</i> received cordially.
The crops <i>will be</i> gathered next week. |
| 2. Capability | { | <i>Can</i> .
Teddie <i>can</i> spell "cat." |
| Possibility | { | <i>Can</i> the city <i>endure</i> the siege?
How <i>can</i> it rain when the air is so cold? |
| 3. Permission | { | <i>May</i> .
<i>May</i> I go now? Yes, you <i>may</i> go.
John <i>may</i> read the first stanza. |
| 4. Necessity | { | <i>Must</i> .
You <i>must</i> go at once.
The work <i>must be</i> finished by noon. |

EXERCISE

In the following sentences, tell why each verb is in the indicative mood.

1. The train *will* arrive at midnight.
2. All *will be* well, if we are careful.
3. Winifred *can* do fine embroidery work.
4. *Can* this be true?
5. Frederick, you *may* have to-day to spend as you please.
6. This noise *must* cease.
7. The oven *must be* hot before you put the biscuits in.
8. We *shall be* unable to accept your invitation.
9. We hope that peace will soon be declared.

130. Words Indicating Subjunctive Mood Ideas

The subjunctive mood-form is used to denote a volition, a wish, or a condition contrary to fact. These uses you have already learned. The subjunctive mood-form is also used to express other mood-ideas which are closely related to those of wishing and willing. These uses are denoted by special words. Thus:

- | | | |
|----------------------------|---|--|
| 1. Volition | { | (a) <i>Will</i> , in the first person
I <i>will have</i> my way. |
| | | (b) <i>Shall</i> , in the second and third person,
You <i>shall come</i> , He <i>shall come</i> . |
| | | (c) <i>Let</i> , in the first and third person,
Let us go; Let every one rise. |
| 2. Wish | { | <i>May, might.</i>
May God bless you; O that I <i>might be</i> with you all. |
| 3. Obligation or propriety | { | <i>Should.</i>
(a) You <i>should do</i> nothing to offend him.
(b) There is no reason why you <i>should do</i> anything to offend him. |
| 4. Probability | { | <i>Should.</i>
(a) John <i>should make</i> a good soldier. (Meaning, John will in all likelihood make a good soldier.)
(b) There are many reasons why John <i>should</i> —as he likely will— <i>make</i> a good soldier. |

5. Possibility

May and might.

- (a) It *may* rain before we return.
- (b) It is quite possible that it *may* rain before we return.
- (c) Father *might* grant your request.
- (d) It is possible that father *might* have granted your request.

131. Helping or Auxiliary Verbs

The verbs *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should* are used as parts of verb phrases, to indicate mood ideas. Because they *help* the main verbs in the phrases to perform their offices, they are called *auxiliary verbs*. A *helping verb* is called an *auxiliary verb*. The last verb in a verb phrase is called the *principal verb*.

EXERCISE

I. Point out the auxiliary and the principal verbs in the sentences in Sections 129 and 130.

II. Point out in the following sentences, the verb phrases which are used in the indicative mood. Point out those which are used in the subjunctive mood. Tell why each verb is indicative or subjunctive.

1. I will go; nobody shall prevent me.
2. Thou shalt not steal.
3. You will like the pictures, I know.
4. The campers will be supplied with ample provisions.
5. You shall not interrupt me.
6. The enemy shall not advance a step farther.
7. The verdict may be rendered before morning.
8. May no harm ever come to you or yours.

132. The Tense of Verbs

We think of all action or being as belonging to a present time, a past time, or a future time. With a few exceptions, the verb shows by its form or use whether the action or being which it expresses belongs to a present time, a past time, or a future time.

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Future</i>
I write	I wrote	I shall write
I am writing	I was writing	I shall be writing
I do write	I did write	I shall write

In these sentences the verbs *write*, *am writing*, *do write* show clearly by their forms that they denote present time. The verbs *wrote*, *was writing*, *did write* show past time. The verbs *shall write* and *shall be writing* show future time.

This power of the verb to show the time of action or being is called tense.

A verb which denotes present time is in the present tense.

A verb which denotes past time is in the past tense.

A verb which denotes future time is in the future tense.

EXERCISE

Tell the tense of each verb used in the following sentences:

1. The senator rises to speak.
2. Children laugh and play.
3. You know too well the story of our thralldom.
4. The sun was rising in the southeast.
5. The children laughed and played the livelong day.
6. The moon will rise before ten o'clock.

133. The Present Tense

A verb used in the present tense, active voice, is usually the root form of the verb, or the root form with the suffix *s*; as,

Horses <i>run</i> .	The horse <i>runs</i> .
Children <i>laugh</i> .	The child <i>laughs</i> .

These common forms may, however, be varied with the progressive and emphatic forms, etc.; as,

Children *are laughing*. The child *does laugh*.

NOTE. The ordinary forms of the verb are known as the common form.

The root form of a verb is its simplest form, the form which is preceded by *to* in the simple infinitive; as, *To write, to play, to sing, to eat*. *Write, play, and eat* are root forms of verbs.

For the sake of making a past event more vivid to the reader, writers sometimes use the present tense instead of the past; as,

And now the Scots are firing their tents, and, under cover of smoke, are rushing down the hill. The English forces draw up in line of battle south of the Tweed, and prepare to resist the assault.

The present tense used to denote past time in this way, occurs frequently in historical narrative. Hence it is called the *historical present*.

The present tense of a verb may refer, to future time; as,

When the train arrives this evening, a great crowd will be at the station.

The verb *arrives* is used in the present tense, as is shown by the form, although it clearly denotes future time.

NOTE. The strictest usage would require, in the above sentence, *When the train shall have arrived*.

Again, the verbs in the following sentences, though they may denote either present or future time, are in the present tense, because they have the present tense forms.

If he *be* honest (now or in the future).

If he *comes* (now or in the future).

A verb is in the present tense when it has the present tense form.

134. The Past Tense

A verb used in the active voice, past tense, generally consists of the simple past form; as, *wrote, walked, ate, loved, sang, plundered*.

These common forms may be varied with the progressive forms and emphatic forms; as, *was writing, did write, was eating, did eat*, etc.

The simple past tense of a verb in the active voice is generally an inflected or changed form of the root verb. It may be made in two ways.

1. By adding to the root form or present tense the ending *ed, d, or t*; as, *walk, walked; request, requested; love, loved; hope, hoped; dwell, dwelt*.

2. By changing the vowel of the present tense without adding an ending; as, *sing, sang; rise, rose; swing, swung; ride, rode.*

NOTE. A few verbs add *d* and also change the root vowel or the vowel sound; as, *sell, sold; tell, told; flee, fled; shoe, shod; hear, heard; say, said; feel, felt; keep, kept.*

135. The Future Tense

The common form of a verb used in the active voice, future tense, is composed of the present tense or root form of the verb preceded by the helping verbs *shall* and *will*; as, *shall go; will write; shall drive; will play.* These common forms may be varied with the progressive forms, *shall be going; shall be writing; will be driving; will be playing.*

EXERCISE

I. *Tell the tense of each verb used in the following sentences. Which verbs are common forms? Which are progressive forms? Which are emphatic or negative forms?*

1. Cyrus issued a decree for the return of the Jews.
2. We saw the moon above the hills.
3. The great tree is swaying fearfully in the blast.
4. The bluebird will be returning in the spring.
5. The party will arrive at the Indian Reservation to-morrow morning.
6. Do you like your new principal?
7. Frank did say so; I heard him.
8. If I am well, I shall certainly be there.
9. Constance did not utter a groan, though the cowardly monk was writhing on the floor in agony.

II. *Rewrite the following sentences, changing the verbs used in the present tense to verbs of the past tense:*

1. John drives well.
2. I see a beautiful star.
3. Arthur does his work well.
4. I am weary of your asking.
5. Melba sings beautifully.
6. Doesn't she swim well?
7. The dog swims to the rescue of the drowning boy.

III. *Write short sentences containing the past and future tenses of the following verbs, both in the common and progressive forms:*

eat, bid, hang, do, strike, hate, wish, see, go, flee,
fly, lie, rise, raise, is, am

IV. *Write in short sentences the present and future tenses of the following verbs:*

was, were, began, bit, blew, came, went, forsook,
froze, laid, lay, rang, ran, slew, swim, heave, thrive

136. The Principal Parts of the Verb

Most verbs have three important forms called the *principal parts* of the verb.

(1) The present tense form, which may always be used with the pronoun *I* as its subject; as, *I am*; *I walk*; *I write*; *I learn*; *I do*, etc.

(2) The past tense form, which may always be used with the pronoun *I* as its subject; as, *I was*; *I walked*; *I wrote*; *I learned*; *I did*.

(3) The past participial form, which can never be used as a verb without the help of another verb; as, *been, done, gotten, ridden, written, risen, eaten, flown*, etc.

The simple present and the simple past forms may denote action or being without the aid of a helping verb; as, *I am* here; *I was* here; *I wrote* the lesson; *I went* home; *I saw* you.

The past participial form of a verb cannot be used to assert anything or ask a question without the aid of a helping verb; as, *I have been* here; *I have gone* home; *I have written* the lesson; *Have you seen* him? *Was the lesson written?*

Many verbs have the same form for the past tense and the past participle; as,

I walked.

I have walked.

I beheld him.

I have beheld him.

Many verbs have different form for the past tense and the past participle; as, *I wrote*, *I have written*; *I rode*, *I have ridden*; *I ate*, *I have eaten*.

The form of the verb which may correctly follow *I have*, is always a past participial form; as, *I have seen*; *I have grown*; *I have sprung*; *I have swum*.

Regular and Irregular Verbs

Most verbs form their past tenses and their past participles by adding *d* or *ed* to the simple present tense form; as, *love, loved, loved*; *hope, hoped, hoped*; *learn, learned, learned*; *ask, asked, asked*. Such verbs are called *regular verbs*.

All other verbs are called irregular verbs; as, *fall, fell, fallen; bear, bore, borne; choose, chose, chosen.*

Verbs which form their past tenses and past participles by adding *d* or *ed* to the present are regular verbs.

Verbs which do not form their past tenses and past participles by adding *d* or *ed* to the present are irregular verbs.

Defective Verbs

Verbs which are not used in all the moods and tenses are called *defective verbs*, because they lack one or two of the principal parts. The most important defective verbs are these:

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present or Past</i>	<i>Past</i>
may	might	must	quoth
can	could	ought	
shall	should		
will	would		

The verbs *must*, *ought*, and *quoth* are uninflected for tense, although *must* and *ought* may be used to denote either present or past time; as,

Present: Robert must go.

Past: Robert must have gone.

Present: We ought to pay our fees.

Past: We ought to have paid our fees.

The tense of *must* and *ought* may be determined by the time of the verb forms which follow.

The verb *quoth* is used only in the past tense. Its subject always follows it; as,

Quoth the raven, "Nevermore."

The verbs *may, can, must, might, could, would, should shall, and will* are used as helping or auxiliary verbs.

EXERCISE

I. (a) *Learn the principal parts of the following verbs. (See Table of Irregular Verbs on pages 365-368.)*

be, awake, bear, begin, bid (meaning to command),
blow, choose, come, do, draw, drink, eat, fly, forget,
freeze, give, go, grow, know, lie, lay, ring.

(b) *Use the past tense and the past participle of each verb in sentences of your own. Remember that the past participle must be preceded by have, has, or had. Be careful, not to use have, has, or had with the past tense form.*

137. The Perfect Tenses

The simple or primary tenses are the *present, past, and future* tenses. Verbs having these tenses express present, past, and future time, but they do not show whether or not the action expressed is completed.

Completed action may be shown, however, by means of verb phrases composed of the past participle preceded by the helping verbs *has, have, or had*; as, *have gone; has filled; has smitten; had shown; shall have written.*

An action completed in present time may be shown by a verb phrase composed of the past participle preceded by the helping verb *has* or *have*.

I have learned my lesson.

He has learned his lesson.

In the preceding sentences, the verbs *have learned* and *has learned* denote action completed in present time. The sentences mean, *I have now finished the learning of my lesson*; etc.

I had learned my lesson.

The verb *had learned* denotes action completed at some past time. The sentence means, *I had finished learning my lesson* (at or before some certain time in the past — *before yesterday*; *at or before ten o'clock*; *on or before Wednesday*, etc.).

I shall have learned my lesson.

The verb *shall have learned* denotes action completed at or before some certain future time. The sentence means, *I shall have finished learning my lesson* (at or before ten o'clock; *at or before noon*, etc.).

Verbs used in this way to express completed, or *perfected* action, are said to be in the perfect tenses.

A verb which expresses an action completed in the present is in the present perfect tense.

A verb which expresses an action completed at or before some certain past time is in the past perfect tense.

A verb which expresses an action to be completed at or before some certain future time is in the future perfect tense.

Signs of the Perfect Tenses

The sign of the present perfect tense is *has* or *have*, which, when used as an auxiliary verb, must always be followed by the past participle; as, *has flown*; *have driven*; *has written*; *have gone*.

The sign of the past perfect tense is the verb *had*, which, used as an auxiliary verb, must always be followed by the past participle; as, *had forgotten*; *had eaten*; *had sung*; *had swept*.

The sign of the future perfect tense is the phrase *shall have* or *will have*, which, used as an auxiliary verb, must be followed by the past participle; as, *shall have gone*; *will have done*, etc.

EXERCISE

Tell which of the perfect tenses of verbs used in the following sentences are present perfect; which are past perfect; which are future perfect:

1. She has done what she could.
2. The burglar had disappeared.
3. I have broken the lily from its stem.
4. The murderer will have been executed before the hour of midnight.
5. When that time comes, we shall have been gathered to our fathers.
6. A tiny stream had once issued from this cavern.

138. The Past Participle and the Past Infinitive

The past participial form of a verb used without an auxiliary verb is a past participle, not a verb; as,

The old man, *stricken by grief*, gave vent to his sorrow in a flood of tears.

A house *built of good materials* will outlast a cheaper house.

NOTE. We may easily prove that *stricken* and *built* in the preceding sentences are participles by expanding them into the adjective clauses introduced by *who* and *which*; as, The old man, *who was stricken*, etc., and A house *which is built*, etc.

The past participle of a verb, preceded by the present participle *having*, forms a *phrasal past participle*, not a verb; as,

Having gone, we did not receive your letter.

Having torn my coat, I went home.

The past participle preceded by *to have* forms the past infinitive; as, *to have failed*; *to have risen*, etc.

EXERCISE

Point out the present, past, and phrasal past participles, and the present and past infinitives in the following sentences:

1. The vine, clambering up the wall, is reaching toward the roof.
2. I am sorry to have missed you.
3. The secret, locked away in my heart, shall never be revealed.
4. To err is human; to forgive, divine.
5. Having defeated the enemy, Cæsar returned to winter quarters.
6. To have loved and lost is better than never to have loved at all.
7. Roaring and whirling, the water tumbled to the rocks below.
8. Peace having been declared, the soldiers hurried eagerly to their homes.

139. Formation of Tenses in the Passive Voice

A verb is in the passive voice when its subject names the *receiver of an action* or names a *passive agent*; as,

The machine *is run* by electricity.

Huge stones *were hurled* against the walls by means of engines called catapults.

The fire *has been extinguished* by the fire department.

From these examples we see that the passive voice is formed by prefixing to the past participle some form of the verb *to be*; such as *am, is, was, were, are, been, has been, shall be*, etc. We see also that the tenses of passive verbs are shown by the helping verbs, not by the past participles which form a part of the verb phrases.

The following table shows the formation of verb phrases in the different tenses of the passive voice:

Present Tense: I *am* + taught or *am being* + taught.

Past Tense: I *was* + taught or *was being* + taught.

Future Tense: I *shall be* + taught.

Present Perfect Tense: I *have been* + taught.

Past Perfect Tense: I *had been* + taught.

Future Perfect Tense: I *shall have been* + taught.

EXERCISE

Write twelve sentences using the verb see in all the tenses of the active and the passive voice. Use the pronoun I as subject of the verb in the active voice, and the noun fort as subject of the verb in the passive voice.

(Active Voice)

1. I see the fort. (Present tense)
etc.

(Passive Voice)

1. The fort is seen by me. (Present tense)
etc.

140. Relation of Tenses

1. In the writing of compound and complex sentences, we should be careful to keep clear the time relations which are intended. We may do this by using our tense forms accurately.

I believe that John *is doing* his duty.

I believe that John *has done* his duty.

I believe that John *will do* his duty.

In each of these sentences, the verb in the principal clause is used in the present tense. The verbs in the subordinate clauses in the three sentences express present, past, and future time. In all the sentences, the time relation is consistent.

2. A general or a universal truth is always expressed in the present tense, both in principal clauses and in subordinate clauses.

Fire *burns*.

The child discovered that fire always *burns*.

3. In conditional complex sentences in which *shall*, *will*, *should*, and *would* are used as auxiliaries, *shall* or *will* in the conditional clause should generally follow or precede *shall* or *will* in the main clause. *Should* or

would in the conditional clause should follow or precede *should* or *would* in the main clause; as,

If you *will* consider my request, I *shall* be obliged to you.

If you *should* consider my request, I *should* be greatly obliged.

EXERCISE

Fill each blank with a verb of the proper tense:

1. I know that John — the truth.

NOTE. In this sentence, any one of five tense forms may be supplied.

2. I knew that John — the truth.

3. I have known that John — the truth.

4. Newton discovered that the power of gravitation — apples to fall.

5. Franklin learned from his experiment with the kite that lightning and electricity — the same.

6. If any one will accompany me, I — go to the rescue of the sinking boat.

7. If Dr. Baker accepts the position as head of the department, he — be cordially received.

8. If Dr. Baker should accept the position, he — be cordially received.

9. If he were well, he — do better in his school work.

141. Relation of Time Shown by Present and Past Infinitive

The infinitive may express either present or past time in relation to the time of the principal verb.

I am sorry *to offend* you.
I am sorry *to have offended* you.
I was sorry *to offend* you.
I was sorry *to have offended* you.

A hope, a wish, an intention, or an expectation can be fulfilled only in the present or in the future. Hence, verbs of *hoping, wishing, intending, or expecting* must always be completed by the present infinitive; as,

We hope (wish, intend, expect) *to arrive* in time.
We hoped (wished, intended, expected) *to arrive* in time.
We had hoped (wished, etc.) *to arrive* in time.
We shall hope (wish, etc.) *to arrive* in time.

In these sentences, the tense of the main verb varies. In each sentence, the present infinitive follows, because in each the time of the arriving is present (or future) in relation to the hope, wish, intention, or expectation which is expressed.

The verb *like* or *should* or *would have liked* is also completed by the present infinitive; as,

I should like *to go*. (Not, I should like *to have gone*.)
I should have liked *to go*. (Not, I should have liked *to have gone*).

142. The Number of Verbs

When the subject of a verb is singular, we say that the verb is singular in number. When the subject is plural, we say that the verb is plural in number.

This agreement of a verb with its subject to show one or more than one is called the number of the verb.

John *is* here. He *is* here. It *is* here.

In the preceding sentences, *is*, a singular form of the verb *to be*, is used, because the subjects are singular.

John and Hal *are* here. The boys *are* here.

In these sentences, *are*, a plural form of the verb *to be*, is used, because the subjects are plural.

A verb must agree with its subject in number.

EXERCISE

Place before each of the following verbs a subject with which the verb may agree in number:

am	are	is
was	were	loves
has been	have been	play
draw	art	lovest

143. Special Rules for Singular and Plural Verbs

Singular Forms

The singular form of the verb is used with the following subjects:

(1) With a subject denoting a single person or thing; as,
I *am* your friend.

(2) A collective noun naming a group of persons or objects considered as one; as,

The class *has gone* on a picnic.

The committee *was* unanimous in its report.

(3) Two or more singular nouns joined by *and*, but naming only a single idea; as,

Work and play *is* much better than work or play alone.

(4) A singular noun or pronoun modified by *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *any*, *many* *a*; as,

Each one of the boys *knows* how to swim.

Everybody in the society *was* invited.

(5) Two or more singular nouns or pronouns joined by *or*, *nor*, *either* — *or*, *neither* — *nor*: as,

A pen *or* an indelible pencil *is* to be used.

(6) Two or more nouns joined by *or* or *nor* when the last noun is singular; as,

Neither the girls *nor* mother *was* present.

EXERCISE

Choose between the singular and the plural form of the verb in each of the following sentences, and give your reasons:

1. One of the boys (was, were) absent.
2. Many a soldier (has, have) enlisted for the war.
3. Every one of these books (is, are) mine.
4. Football and baseball (is, are) popular in our school.
5. Neither rhyme nor reason (were, was) in his poetry.
6. Either you or he (is, are) responsible.
7. The army (were, was) encamped along the river.

Plural Forms

The plural form of the verb is used:

- (1) With plural subjects.

We *are* your friends.

- (2) With collective nouns which convey plural ideas.

The committee *were divided* in their opinions.

(3) With two or more subjects connected by *and*, and denoting more than one person, thing, or idea.

Music and painting *are* two of the fine arts.

(4) With a compound subject joined by *or*, *nor*, *either* — *or*, *neither* — *nor*, when the second or last member is plural, or when both members are plural.

Neither mother nor her neighbors *were* in favor of the plan.

EXERCISE

I. *Choose between the singular and the plural forms given in parentheses in each of the following sentences:*

1. The team (was, were) disputing in regard to the choice of a captain.
2. The committee (was, were) disagreed.
3. The audience (were, was) in tears.
4. The army (was, were) moving upon the fort.
5. The army (was, were) disunited.
6. George and I (am, are) good friends.
7. The society (are, is) disagreed.

II. *Choose between the singular and plural verbs given in parentheses in the following sentences. Before choosing, decide carefully what the subject of each sentence is.*

1. A string of blue beads (are, is) in the jewel case.
2. The roar of the sea-lions (were, was) heard far away.
3. The noise of the passing cars (disturb or disturbs) me.
4. The buildings, glistening with white paint, (is, are) imposing in appearance.
5. The prisoner's story, supported by many proofs, (were, was) believed by many listeners.
6. A bunch of daisies (was, were) used in the decoration.

144. The Person of Verbs

A verb used in the present tense or in the present perfect tense, with the first person pronoun *I* as its subject, takes a different form from that of the same verb used with *thou* or *he* as subject.

	<i>Present Tense</i>	<i>Present Perfect Tense</i>
First Person	<i>I am</i>	<i>I have been</i>
Second Person	<i>Thou art</i>	<i>Thou hast been</i>
Third Person	<i>He is</i>	<i>He has been</i>
First Person	<i>I hope</i>	<i>I have hoped</i>
Second Person	<i>Thou hopest</i>	<i>Thou hast hoped</i>
Third Person	<i>He hopes</i>	<i>He has hoped</i>

This change in the form of the verb to show agreement with its subject in person is called the person of the verb.

NOTE. With the exception of the verb *am*, verbs of the present and present perfect tenses used with the pronoun *I* are the same in form as those used with plural subjects; as,

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>I love</i>	<i>We, you, or they love</i>
<i>I have loved</i>	<i>We, you, or they have loved</i>

NOTE. The verb changes its form to agree with its subject in person, only in the present and in the present perfect tenses, and only when used with singular pronouns as subjects.

145. Uses of Shall and Will

The verbs *shall* and *will* are used as auxiliary verbs. They have different meanings when they are used with subjects of different persons.

Shall and Will with Subjects of the First Person

Shall used with the pronouns *I* and *we* as subjects denotes future time; as,

I shall go. (I am going in the future.)

We shall go. (We are going in the future.)

Will used with *I* and *we* as subjects denotes determination or intention; as,

I will go. (I am determined or intend to go.)

We will go. (We are determined or intend to go.)

Shall used with a subject of the first person denotes future time.

Will used with a subject of the first person denotes determination or intention.

Shall and Will with Subjects of the Second and Third Person

Will used with a subject of the second or third person denotes future time; as,

You will enjoy the music. (You are going to enjoy the music in the future.)

Frances will come to-morrow. (Frances is going to come in the future.)

Shall used with a subject of the second and third person shows that the person speaking has authority over the person or thing named in the subject; as,

You shall go. (You must go because I will you to go.)

Frances shall come to-morrow. (Frances must come to-morrow, because I am determined she shall come.)

Will used with subjects of the second and third person denotes future time.

Shall used with subjects of the second and third person denotes that the person speaking has power or authority over the person or thing named in the subject of the sentence.

EXERCISE

Use *shall* or *will* with principal verbs in place of each of the italicized groups in the following sentences:

1. I *am going* to Denver this fall.
2. I *intend* to study hard in the future.
3. We *are determined* to win the game.
4. We *are going* to come early.
5. We *are going* to be able to come.
6. We *are going* to be surprised, I know.
7. We *are going* to be pleased to accept your invitation.
8. The children *must* obey me.

The sentence, *I will be glad to see you*, means *I am determined to be glad to see you*. This meaning, of course, is not intended.

Exceptions

The exceptions to the usual uses of *shall* and *will* are these:

1. *Shall* is used in the third person to express a prophecy; as,

And it *shall* come to pass.

There *shall* be weeping and wailing.

2. *Shall* is used in the statement of rules and laws of an organization or club; as,

The officers *shall* be elected twice a year.

1. *Will* is used in the second and third person to express a polite command; as,

You *will* please be present at our next meeting.

The members *will* please pay their dues this morning.

2. *Will* is used in the first person to make a promise; as,

I *will* pay you what I owe you next month.

If you are a good girl, I *will* give you a fine doll.

EXERCISE

Place in each blank the proper auxiliary shall or will. Give reasons for your choice. Remember that will should not be used in the first person, unless the thought of intention, or determination, or promise is to be expressed.

1. We — be compelled to leave at an early hour.

2. I am afraid we — be hindered in our journey by the recent rains.

3. I — not permit his impertinence.

4. You — enjoy the play thoroughly.

5. You — obey me.

6. You — apologize to me.

7. You — gladly apologize when you see that you have been in the wrong.

8. I — pay you the next time I see you.

9. I — come without fail; I promise it.

146. Uses of Should and Would

The common uses of *should* and *would* are similar to the uses of *shall* and *will*.

Should, like the auxiliary *shall*, is used in the first

person, simply as a tense sign, without any thought of intention or determination; as,

I *should* be glad to come, if I could do so.

Should in this sentence is similar in use to *shall* in the following:

I *shall* be glad to see you, if I can do so.

Would, like the auxiliary *will*, is used in the first person to show intention or determination; as,

I *would* go out in the boat; nobody could keep me from going.

Would in this sentence is similar in use to *will* in the following:

I *will* go out in the boat; nobody can hinder me from going.

Should, like *shall*, is used in the second and in the third person to denote that the speaker has power or authority over the person or thing named in the subject; as,

The jury agreed that the prisoner *should* be put to death.

Would, like *will*, is used in the second and in the third person simply as a tense sign; as,

Mother *would* not allow me to go.

Would is used to express a wish; as,

I *would* (wish) you were here.

Would is used to express customary or habitual action; as,

The Indians *would* come (were in the habit of coming) to our door each morning.

Every evening at the same time, Fido *would* come (was in the habit of coming) to meet me.

EXERCISE

I. Write three sentences using *shall* to express future time. Write three using *shall* to show authority on the part of the speaker. Write three sentences using *will* to show determination or intention. Write three using *will* to show future time.

II. Write three sentences using *shall* to express prophecy. Write three using *shall* to state a ruling or law of some club. Write three sentences using *will* to express a polite command. Write three using *will* to make a promise.

III. Use *should* or *would* in each of the following sentences:

1. I — like to attend the lecture.
2. We — be pleased to have you take dinner with us.
3. Mary — not give her consent to the plan.
4. Lucille — divide her orange with her brother.
5. James promised me that he — be there in time.
6. I — buy the whistle in spite of all warning.
7. I — that I might save you.
8. We — go, if we were invited.

147. The Forms Got and Gotten

The verb *get* has two past participial forms — *got* and *gotten*. The second form, *gotten*, is an archaic, or old-fashioned form which is still used in the compound words *forgotten* and *begotten*. Good speakers sometimes use it in place of the form *got*, although *got* is the accepted form.

I *have got* (secured) the book from the library.

We *had got* (secured) the money from the bank.

NOTE. Do not use *got* in place of *have* to show mere possession. *Got* means *to obtain* or secure something; as,

I *have got* (secured) the book from the library.

I *have* (own) the book.

148. The Parsing of Verbs

We parse a word when we classify it and point out its modifications or properties. Notice the parsing of the two verbs from the following sentence:

If John had written his lesson more neatly, he would have been promoted.

Had written is an irregular, transitive verb.

It is in the active voice, subjunctive mood, past perfect tense. It is of the third person, singular number, to agree with its subject, *John*.

Would have been promoted is a regular, intransitive verb.

It is in the passive voice, indicative mood, present perfect tense. It is of the third person, singular number, to agree with its subject, *he*.

To parse a verb we must tell:

I. Classification

1. Whether it is regular or irregular.
2. Whether it is transitive or complete, or linking.

II. Properties

1. Voice.
2. Mood.
3. Tense.

III. Agreement with its subject

1. Person.
2. Number.

Example

The horse ran across the field.

Plan of Parsing the Verb

Verb	Class	Voice	Mood	Tense	Person	Number	Subject
	Reg. or Irreg. Trans. or Intrans.						
ran	Irreg., Intrans.	Act.	Indic.	Past	Third	Sing.	horse

EXERCISE

Draw a plan similar to the preceding plan, and indicate the parsing of the verbs in the following sentences:

1. Hope dawned upon our dark horizon.
2. A nest of eggs is hanging in the tree.
3. The weather has been severe.
4. The cows were driven to pasture.
5. The curfew tolls the knell of parting day.
6. The cows wind slowly o'er the lea.
7. The plowman homeward plods his weary way.
8. Frances or her sisters are coming to the party.
9. If I were you, I should not go.

149. Change of Force in the Parts of Speech

1. The children *sleep* in the tents.
2. *Sleep* rests the tired person.
3. You *smile* at my mistake.
4. Her *smile* was attractive.

Note that the word *sleep* in the first of the preceding sentences is a verb; in the second, it is a noun: in the third, the word *smile* is a verb; in the fourth it is a noun. Thus one word may be used as more than one part of speech.

Note the different ways in which the *italicized* words in the following sentences may be used:

All. They gave *all* they had. (Noun.)

All men are mortal. (Adj.)

The bicycle is *all* worn out. (Adv.)

As. He has the same name *as* I have. (Rel. pro.)

Let us walk *as* fast *as* we can. (The first *as* is an adverb, the second is a conjunction.)

The boat left *as* the train came into the station. (Conj.)

Before. Lincoln stood *before* a large and tumultuous crowd. (Prep.)

Have I ever met you *before*? (Adv.)

Write me a letter *before* you leave the country. (Conj.)

Both. *Both* boys are to blame. (Adj.)

Both of us brothers resemble father. (Indef. pro.)

He could *both* swim and sail a boat. (Conj.)

But. They accepted the invitation, *but* they could not go. (Conj.)

All the class *but* Frank was present. (Prep.)

It is *but* fair to tell him the truth. (Adv.)

There is no one *but* knows he is innocent. (Rel. pro.)

Either. *Either* train will take us to Princeton. (Adj.)

I do not care for *either* of them. (Indef. pro.)

You must *either* ride or walk. (Conj.)

Enough. He had money *enough* for his needs. (Adj.)

We have *enough* to satisfy us. (Indef. pro.)

Is this lesson long *enough*? (Adv.)

For. The officer sent *for* the soldier. (Prep.)

The soldiers returned to their homes, *for* the war was finished. (Conj.)

Like. *Like* associates with *like*. (Substantive.)

I *like* to study chemistry. (Verb.)

He runs *like* a deer. (Adv.)

He is *like* his brother. (Adj.)

Since. He has been ill *since* the game. (Prep.)

He has been ill *since* he went away. (Conj.)

He has been ill ever *since*. (Adv.)

So. The game was canceled, *so* we did not go. (Conj.)

There will be a crowd *since* *so* many are going. (Adv.)

That. He *that* does not tell the truth cannot be trusted (Rel. pro.)

That is the man whom I was seeking. (Demon. pro.)

I was seeking *that* man. (Adj.)

He went *that* he might see for himself. (Conj.)

The. *The* lesson was difficult. (Adj.)

The more we learn, *the* more we wish to learn. (Adv.)

What. *What* did he say? (Interrog. pro.)

What name did they mention? (Interrog. Adj.)

What, did he say *that*! (Interj.)

You may have *what* you wish. (Rel. pro.)

While. I shall be with you in a little *while*. (Noun.)

They read and *while* the time away. (Verb.)

He read his paper *while* he waited for the train. (Rel. Adv.)

EXERCISE

I. Make sentences using each of the following words, first as a noun and then as an adjective:

Copper, eight, old, rich, tin, family, peach, clean.

II. Make sentences using each of the following words, first as adjectives then as adverbs:

Slow, long, sweet, late, just, low, little, hard, fast, early.

CHAPTER IX

ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES

When we separate a sentence into its principal and its subordinate parts, in order to see the relations of these parts to each other, we are said to analyze the sentence.

The essential or principal parts of a sentence are usually the subject substantive and the predicate verb. When a transitive verb is used in the active voice, the direct object is an essential part of the sentence. Also, when a linking verb is used in a sentence, the predicate substantive or the predicate adjective following is an essential part of the sentence. The subordinate parts of a sentence are its modifying words, phrases, and clauses.

Modifiers are divided into two classes: (1) adjectival modifiers; (2) adverbial modifiers.

The complete subject is the subject substantive and its modifiers. The complete predicate is the predicate verb and its modifiers, its object, or its predicate noun, pronoun, or adjective.

The subject substantive of a sentence may be a word, a phrase, or a clause. The predicate verb may be a word or a phrase. The object of the predicate verb may be a word, a phrase, or a clause. A predicate

substantive may be a word, phrase, or clause. A predicate adjective may be a word, a phrase, or a clause. A modifier may be a word, a phrase, or a clause.

For analysis of simple sentence, see page 54.

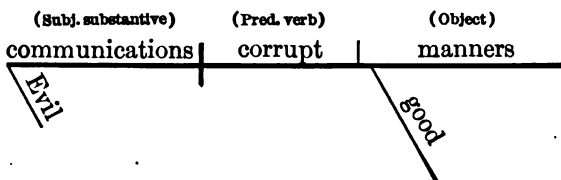
150. Diagrams of Simple Sentences

TO THE TEACHER. For the diagrams of a short simple sentence, see page 56.

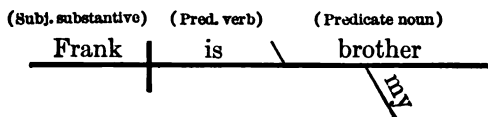
To diagram a sentence is to write it in such a way as to show the relation between its parts.

Study carefully the following diagrams and tell what each one shows:

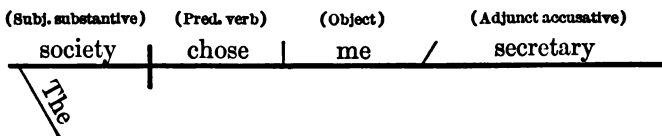
1. Evil communications corrupt good manners.



2. Frank is my brother.

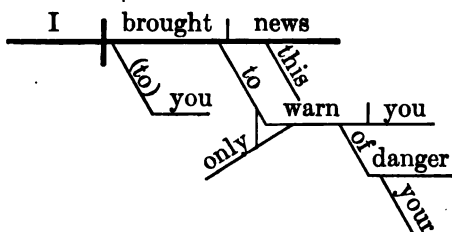


3. The society chose me secretary.



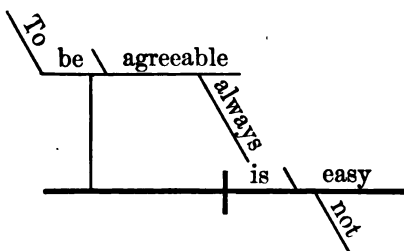
Note that the adjunct accusative, as in diagram 3, is separated from the direct object by a short line which slants toward the adjunct accusative.

4. I brought you this news only to warn you of your danger.



Note that the indirect object is placed on the horizontal part of a phrase line, and that the preposition *to*, which is understood, is placed in parentheses on the slanting part of the phrase line. Note also the way in which the word *only* is placed to show that it is a modifier of an entire phrase.

5. To be agreeable always is not easy.



Note that the infinitive used as a subject substantive is placed on a phrase line which is joined by a stem to the main line. Note how the predicate adjective is separated from the infinitive which it completes.

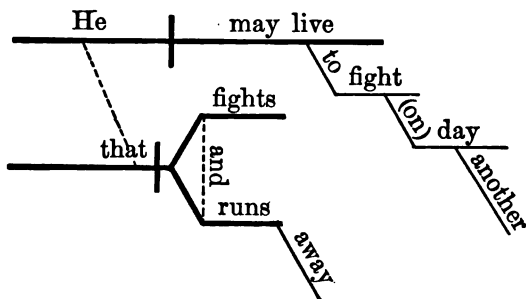
EXERCISE

Analyze and diagram the following simple sentences:

1. John was slow to see the point.
2. I have tried faithfully to do my duty.
3. God made the lily fairest of flowers.
4. Only human beings are able to laugh.
5. The desire to rule is natural to all men.
6. We called them Bob and Becky for short.
7. Pity it was to hear the elfin's wail.
8. The jury believed him to be guilty.
9. They placed him on the throne and called him king.
10. Hunting deer in the mountains was the king's greatest delight.
11. Sailing a boat on the lake was fine sport for the children.

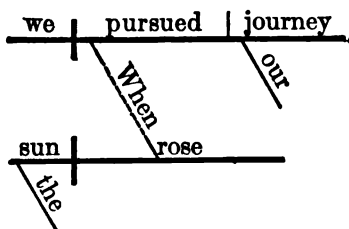
151. Diagrams of Complex Sentences

1. He that fights and runs away may live to fight another day.



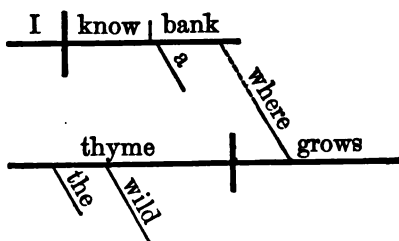
Note that the connecting line between the subordinate clause and the principal clause is a dotted line. Note that the dotted line connects the words *He* and *that*.

2. When the sun rose, we pursued our journey.



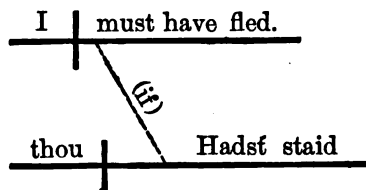
Note that the relative adverb *when* modifies the verbs in both clauses. The solid part of the connecting line shows the modifying use of the word.

3. I know a bank where the wild thyme grows.



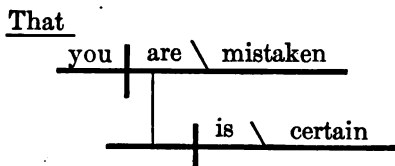
Note that the relative adverb *where* modifies the verb *grows*, but not the noun *bank*. The entire subordinate clause modifies the noun *bank*, and hence is an adjectival clause.

4. Hadst thou staid I must have fled.



Note in diagram 4 that parts which are understood are inclosed in parentheses.

5. That you are mistaken is certain.



Note that a subordinate clause used as subject substantive of a sentence, is placed on a clause line above the main line, to which it is joined by a stem. Note also that the connective introducing the substantive clause is placed upon a short horizontal line above the subject.

EXERCISE

Analyze and diagram the following complex sentences:

1. When school hours were over, Ichabod would spend the afternoon playing with the older boys.
2. There is a garden in her face,
Where roses and white lilies grow.
3. It was a time when the meanest slave felt an impulse for freedom.
4. To him who in the love of nature holds
Communion with her visible forms she speaks
A various language.
5. Open the window if you need more air.
6. Though all men forsake thee, be of good cheer.
7. Cornwallis was compelled to surrender because the French fleet cut off his escape.

8. We shall not be judged by what we might have been, but by what we have been.

9. That the ship regained her balance seemed miraculous.

10. The general hoped that he could get control of the Hudson River.

11. Grant led his army a roundabout way that he might surprise the enemy.

12. The dying soldier waited for the surgeon who never came.

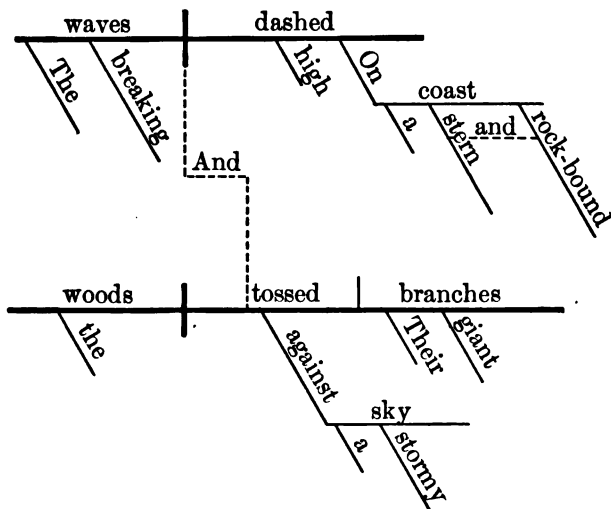
152. Diagram of a Compound Sentence

The breaking waves dashed high

On a stern and rock-bound coast;

And the woods against a stormy sky

Their giant branches tossed.



EXERCISE

Analyze and diagram the following compound and compound-complex sentences:

1. The Assyrian came down like a wolf on the fold,
And his cohorts were gleaming with purple and gold.
2. Pride goeth forth on horseback, grand and gay,
But cometh back on foot and begs its way.
3. The harebells nod as she passes by,
The violet lifts its calm blue eye.
4. The waves beside them danced, but they
Outdid the sparkling waves in glee.
5. The way was long, the wind was cold,
The minstrel was infirm and old.
6. The western waves of ebbing day
Roll'd o'er the glen their level way.
Each purple peak, each flinty spire
Was bathed in floods of living fire.

PART II

COMPOSITION

CHAPTER X

THE PARAGRAPH

You have been told to begin a new paragraph wherever you start a new topic. In your letters and other compositions, you are accustomed to set in, an inch or an inch and a quarter from the margin, certain sentences which you believe to be the beginnings of new paragraphs. This act of setting in certain sentences we call *indention*.

Because you are still in doubt as to where a new topic really begins, you make mistakes in your indention. Some of the sections into which you break up your compositions are not true paragraphs, because they do not tell enough about the topics on which you are writing. Other sections are not true paragraphs, because they contain sentences which do not belong to the topics which you are trying to develop.

The little room in which he [Oliver] was accustomed to sit, when busy with his books, was on the ground floor, at the back of the house. It was quite a cottage-room with lattice window, around which were clusters of jessamine and honey-suckle that crept over the casement and filled the

place with their delicious perfume. It looked into a garden whence a wicket-gate opened into a small paddock. All beyond was fine meadow-land and wood. There was no other dwelling near, and the prospect which it commanded was very extensive.

What is this paragraph written about? What does Dickens make you feel most about the room? Does every sentence help to bring out the pleasant air and appearance of the room? Tell how each sentence helps.

153. Important Facts about the Paragraph

You may learn to know the true paragraph by observing how good writers divide their stories and essays. Your study will teach you some of these facts.

1. A paragraph is usually a group of sentences, bearing upon some particular topic, or bringing out some special point.

2. Sometimes the topic of a paragraph is stated in one of the sentences called the *topic sentence*.

3. Often the topic of the paragraph is not stated in a particular sentence. In such paragraphs, all the sentences work together to make clear to the reader the topic of the paragraph.

EXERCISE

I. *The following paragraph contains a topic sentence. Write the topic sentence, and explain how all the other sentences in the group help to bring out the topic.*

Depression fell upon their spirits. They would sit at night in their new house after a day's weariness, and not exchange one word; or the silence would be broken by Kokua, bursting suddenly into sobs. Sometimes they would pray together and sit all evening, watching how the shadow hovered in the midst. At such times they were afraid to go to rest; it was long before slumber came to them, and if either dozed off, it would be to wake, and find the other silently weeping in the dark.

II. *In the following paragraph the topic is not stated in a particular sentence. Write a topic sentence which you think the author could have used well, either at the beginning, or near the beginning, or at the end of the paragraph.*

The air grew colder, as day came slowly on; and the mist rolled along the ground like a dense cloud of smoke. The grass was wet; the pathways and low places were all mire and water; and the damp breath of an unwholesome wind went languidly by, with a hollow moaning.

154. Unity in the Paragraph

Unless every sentence helps to bring out the main point, or the topic on which you are writing, your paragraph will fail to tell one thing. It will lack unity.

EXERCISE

Read the following paragraphs written by pupils of your own grade and age. In which of them do you find sentences that do not belong to the topic? In which does each sentence really help to develop the thought of the topic sentence?

A DOG'S LOYALTY

George Janklin, a mine prospector, accompanied by his faithful companion, Pedro, a big St. Bernard, was jaunting along a narrow, steep mountain path. On his sturdy shoulders he carried a bag of ore; and as he traveled along, he talked in his usual way to his shaggy dog. Suddenly he slipped, and one foot shot over the side of the brink. He lost his balance and was toppling over, when his dog seized the bag in his teeth, and held on with all his might. This aid gave George a chance to catch hold of a snag, and thus to save his life. George, of course, would not loosen his hold on the precious bag of ore, and thus he soon regained his footing, and was once more on his way. George had left his home and all that was dear to him in life, and had traveled from the East into this mining country. Now that he was rich, he was ready to return to his family. As he continued along the way, he had a stronger feeling of affection than ever for his faithful dog.

PUPIL GOVERNMENT

Pupil government has been a benefit to us and to our school in several ways. First of all, it has given the pupils a chance to win the esteem and friendship of the other pupils, and of the teachers of School No. 27. In the second place, the pupils have gained in self-respect, because they have learned that they should not do anything which they require others not to do. A pupil knows that he cannot persuade the younger pupils in his care to obey the laws of the school unless he, himself, shows respect for the laws. He cannot forbid whispering, if he himself whispers. Best of all, he has learned that if he wishes to set an example for the younger ones to follow, he must control his temper and be patient but firm.

155. Planning a Paragraph

If you form the habit of making a simple outline for each of your paragraphs, you will find it easier to keep out sentences which do not help to make your topic clear and interesting. The following outline will show you how you may plan your paragraphs.

1. Paragraph Topic: An Unhappy Morning.
2. Topic Sentence: Yesterday morning was one of the unhappiest of my life.
3. Helping ideas:
 - a. Arose, ill and out of sorts.
 - b. Badly cooked breakfast.
 - c. Late to school; reproved by teacher.
 - d. Notified that I had failed in a test of the day before.
 - e. Snubbed by one of my classmates.
 - f. Telephone message that mother was ill.

EXERCISE

I. *Write the paragraph which the preceding outline suggests to you. Begin your paragraph with the topic sentence given. As you write, try to make use of some of the following introductory groups.*

To begin with,

When I went to the breakfast room,

Although I hurried,

At the end of my first recitation,

Added to all my other miseries,

At last the crowning trouble came when

II. Criticise the following outline. Which of the ideas given in the outline do not belong to the topic stated in the topic sentence?

1. Topic: The Kindness of Lincoln.
2. Topic Sentence: Lincoln was one of the kindest hearted men in the world.
3. Helping ideas:
 - a. Kindness to his family.
 - b. Sympathy for soldiers.
 - c. Tender feeling for all living creatures.
 - d. Fond of telling jokes.
 - e. Courageous and honest.
 - f. Dressed in awkward fashion.

III. Make outlines for two or three paragraph talks, beginning with two or three of the following topic sentences. Give the talks which you have outlined, before the members of your class. Be careful not to use sentences which do not belong to your topics.

1. My cousin has a queer sort of affection for a most repulsive pet. (Let your talk first bring out the ugliness of the pet, then tell of your cousin's strange acts of devotion to it.)

2. I have several reasons for believing that John Wright will make a useful citizen when he reaches manhood. (Let your talk give three or four good traits in John's character, then close with a brief incident which will help to prove the point of the topic sentence.)

3. I admire the manly way in which the Blue and White met defeat. (Let your paragraph tell how generously the captain and other members of the Blue and White team acted toward the victorious Reds.)

4. Whenever I am discouraged, or, as we say, a little blue, I have a fortunate way of seeking relief. (Let your talk tell how you overcome the "blues.")

IV. *Write paragraphs suggested by the following topics and helping ideas:*

A COZY ROOM. Wide fireplace; ruddy, crackling flames leaping up the chimney; soft, pleasing colors in paper, rugs, and draperies; comfortable chairs; easy couch; inviting cozy corner piled high with pillows.

A PICTURESQUE SCENE. An old cabin at the top of a hill; scenery at the foot of the hill; to the east of the cabin; to the west; back of it; to the south, etc.

JUST OUTSIDE THE CIRCUS. Pushing crowds of excited people; various refreshment stands; confusion of sounds; free performances; alluring pictures to tempt people into the side-show.

V. *Write a paragraph on some topic in which you are interested. Leave a blank line at the beginning for the topic sentence. When you have finished writing your paragraph, exchange with one of your classmates. Ask him to supply the topic sentence which he thinks you had in mind when you wrote the paragraph.*

TO THE TEACHER. Reading aloud the paragraphs in which topics are clearly developed, and asking pupils to write the topics which they think are brought out, will help to develop a feeling for the true paragraph. Also, reading aloud (with special emphasis upon intruding sentences) paragraphs which lack unity will help pupils to write better paragraphs.



**READING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE FROM THE BALCONY
OF OLD STATE HOUSE, BOSTON**

VI. Write a description of the patriotic scene shown in this picture. Your description may begin in this way:

Standing in a narrow, old-fashioned street, in front of a quaint building is, etc.

VII. In May, 1776, General Washington wrote from the head of the army, then at New York: "A reconciliation with Great Britain is impossible. When I took command of the army, I abhorred the idea

of independence; but I am now fully satisfied that nothing else will save us."

Begin with these statements and tell briefly the story of The Declaration of Independence.

156. Steps in a Paragraph

Each sentence in a paragraph should take a *step forward*. That is, each new sentence should add something to what has been said in the preceding sentences. Whenever you write two or three sentences to tell one important thing, or whenever you use sentences which are not really needed, you do not make progress in what you are telling.

EXERCISE

I. The incident related in the following paragraph is very uninteresting, because it takes too long to reach the exciting part of the story. This slowness is due to the fact that the writer has used two or three short sentences instead of one for each step. Read the incident aloud and note the short sentences.

THE HUNTER AND THE LION

One day a hunter was crossing a field on his way home. As he walked along, he saw a large lion. The lion was watching him. The hunter had exhausted his supply of bullets. He knew he could not escape by running. He, therefore, looked about for a hiding-place. The field was bare and offered no protecting retreat. The hunter soon saw that but one chance remained — to deceive the lion.

So he crept along the edge of a high cliff and hid himself behind a large rock. He then took his hat and coat and fixed them on his gun. He fixed them on the gun so they would look like a man. Soon the hunter saw the lion approaching. He held the gun, thus dressed, above the rock. The lion made a spring at what he supposed to be the man. He leaped over the cliff. He was dashed in pieces on the rocks below. The hunter descended and recovered his hat and coat. He found his gun shattered in pieces. He looked at the lifeless form of the lion. He was filled with thankfulness for his own deliverance.

The following outline shows the actual number of steps in the preceding story:

OUTLINE OF PARAGRAPH

1. Hunter sees large lion watching him.
2. Why the hunter seeks place of safety.
3. Finding no retreat he resolves to deceive the lion.
4. Hides behind a large rock and dresses up his gun to look like a man.
5. At the approach of the lion the hunter holds the gun above the rock.
6. Lion meets death.
7. Hunter recovers coat and hat, but not his gun.
8. Gratitude of the hunter.

Rewrite the paragraph "The Hunter and the Lion" in longer sentences, using only as many sentences as there are separate steps suggested by the outline.

II. *In which of the following paragraphs does each sentence make a full step? In which has the pupil used two or three short sentences for each step?*

There was every indication of an approaching storm. A sudden, heavy darkness had fallen upon the earth. That awesome, tense feeling, always preceding a storm, was in the air, and the black clouds were sent scurrying through the sky, by the fast increasing breeze. Flocks of birds, frightened by the occasional flashes of lightning and the deep roll of thunder, were seeking safety in their homes in the trees. The dismayed people were hastening through the streets with cloaks tightly wrapped around them; for already the rain was falling in large scattered drops.

Not one person showed the least presence of mind during the fire; everybody did the most foolish things imaginable. For instance, the proprietor of the hotel excitedly waved the key of a money safe over his head. He begged the by-standers to go and bring out the safe. A woman came running down the hall. She wore, on her head, a large Paris hat. She was clad in her house dress. In her hand she carried an empty jewel case. A would-be hero rushed up a ladder. He entered a room filled with smoke. He reappeared in a few seconds. He was bearing very carefully in his arms a large fancy pillow. One of the last to come out was a large woman, holding in one hand a Teddy-bear. In the other she held a Turkish towel. A little girl was clinging to her mother's dress with one arm. In the other she held a small box of candy. No one, in fact, but the firemen, who soon arrived, knew what he was doing.

III. Complete with two or three more sentences the following description of the picture on page 264:

A full moon, peeping from behind a church spire, throws its bright light over a quaint, irregular street. Dashing, at full gallop, down the winding road is, etc.



PAUL REVERE'S RIDE

IV. Read Longfellow's poem "*Paul Revere's Ride.*" Tell the story in your own words. Be careful not to use too many choppy sentences.

157. Stories to be Completed

Complete the following imaginary reverie of Mr. Longfellow's. Try to bring into your story five or six other characters from Longfellow's poems. If you have read *Hiawatha*, *The Courtship of Miles Standish*, and *Evangeline*, you can easily complete the dream.

The fire burned brightly in the wide pleasant grate. The richly carved, polished book-cases opposite caught its ruddy glow, and threw it back into the oval mirror over the fire-place, and on the white paneled walls around it.



LONGFELLOW IN HIS STUDY, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

Mr. Longfellow sat in his easy chair beside a wide table covered with rare books. He was half awake and half dreaming. The children of his fancy, who lived in his poems, were trooping through his memory.

First came the little Hiawatha, with his tiny bow and arrow. Before him sat a squirrel with paws uplifted, saying, "Do not shoot me, Hiawatha."

Boy and squirrel vanished, and in their place stood, etc.

Complete the little story suggested by the following paragraph, in three or four paragraphs of your own:

Mother and father had gone away for the day, leaving in my care little Norma and baby John. "You must take good care of your sister and brother," mamma had said, as she bade us good-bye. But I had made no reply; for I was

bent on carrying out my own plans; I could not give up the picnic to which I had been invited. The door had no sooner closed behind my father and mother than I began to think of some way of getting free of the responsibility which they had placed upon me. I soon hit upon a plan.



158. Paragraph Talks

Give before the members of your class, an account of a game of football between rival school teams. Let your talk bring out the situation shown in the picture.

Let two pupils stand before the class and engage in conversations suggested by the following outlines:

Topic: Football.

First Paragraph: I feel sure that I can prove to you that football is a most valuable game, and that it should be allowed in the schools. (Let the paragraph first tell of the two main

advantages of the game, then give more briefly the minor advantages.)

Second Paragraph: Although I admit that you are right in some points, I feel that, on the whole, it is not a safe game, and that it should be prohibited. (Let paragraph first disprove some of the assertions made in the first paragraph, then give several reasons why it should not be allowed.)

Topic: Written Tests.

First Paragraph: I do not approve of written tests. (Complete the paragraph, giving four or five reasons for not believing in written tests.)

Second Paragraph: I do not agree with you that written examinations are not worth while — to me they seem very valuable. (Complete the paragraph, explaining in four or five additional sentences just how written tests are useful both to teachers and pupils.)

In talks like those suggested by the foregoing outlines, you may keep your side of the argument clear by making use of such expressions as:

In the first place; Then, too; Another reason; In addition to these advantages; Enumerating briefly.

TO THE TEACHER. Let conversations of this sort be followed by discussions in which members of the class call attention to the good and the weak points in the talks given.

159. Writing of Conversation

When conversation is written, the first sentence of each new speech, together with the comment of the person who is quoting the conversation, should be indented. Note the indention of the following:

The boy's eyes sparkled. He turned to his grandmother. She shook her head vigorously.

"Nay, father," she said, "draw not the lad away from my side with those wild words. I need him to help me with my labors, to cheer my old age."

"Do you need him more than the Master does?" asked Winfried; "and will you take the wood that is fit for a bow to make a distaff?"

"But I fear for the child. Thy life is too hard for him."

EXERCISE

I. Note carefully the punctuation of the conversation preceding, and answer the following questions:

In which paragraph do you find two pairs of quotations marks?

What kind of quotation requires two pairs of quotation marks?

Account for the punctuation in the following paragraphs:

"Henry Hulm, advance!" said the officer.

"Will you give us some specimens of his stories?" said the officer.

"I will," responded Henry; "but I can do it best by asking him questions."

II. Write an imaginary conversation between the aeronaut of the air-ship and the captain of the sailing vessel shown in the following picture. The conversation may be supposed to occur on an island to which both vessels have been driven by a storm. Let each



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captain tell his experience to the other. Let each at the close try to convince the other that his own ship is the better.

Be careful to indent each new speech, and to inclose it in quotation marks.

Your talk will be more interesting if you will use such expressions as: he replied; he responded; he retorted; he commented; he observed; he answered; he returned, *etc.*

III. *Write an imaginary conversation between John Alden and Miles Standish.*

160. Oral Composition

TO THE TEACHER. Much interest may be aroused by organizing a class into a club. Let the class discuss, in paragraph talks, interesting topics of various sorts. The following outline is suggestive of a plan which has been used successfully:

I. Topic: How we may Improve our School Building and Grounds.

II. Introductory Paragraph. To be given by the president of the club.

1. Needed Improvements:

- a.* Decorated walls.
- b.* Cleaner floors.
- c.* Desks kept in better condition.
- d.* School grounds, clean and attractive.

III. Discussions of the Different Improvements Needed.
To be given by various members of the club.

- 1. Means of securing improvements:**
- 2. Ways to raise money for the beautifying of the building and grounds.**

SUGGESTIVE TOPICS FOR PARAGRAPH DISCUSSIONS

Questions of Social and Civic Interest.

- 1. A Needy Family in our Neighborhood.**
- 2. How we may Help to Keep our Streets Clean.**
- 3. How we may Save our Trees.**

Questions of School Interest.

- 1. How can we Make the Best Use of Recess?**
- 2. Our Attitude toward the Younger Pupils.**



Courtesy of Emery School Art Co.

THE SPINNERS

Questions of Right and Wrong.

1. Was Dame Van Winkle Responsible for all of Rip's Shortcomings?
2. Is Hunting for Mere Sport Right?
3. Is it Right to Report a Classmate to the Teacher?

TOPICS FOR ORAL OR WRITTEN PARAGRAPHS

Fireside Pictures

The Spinners

The Boy Lincoln

Sir Walter Scott in his Library at Abbotsford



Courtesy of Emery School Art Co.

THE BOY LINCOLN

On the Playground.

Playing School.

Sulking in a Corner.

In the Barnyard.

At Feeding Time.

An Intruder — a Dog or a Cat.

A Frolicsome Calf and a Dignified Mother.



Courtesy of Emery Art School Co.

SIR WALTER SCOTT IN HIS LIBRARY AT ABBOTSFORD

Pictures from Literature.

John Alden and Priscilla at the Spinning Wheel. Long-fellow.

The Barefoot Boy. Whittier.

The School House by the Road. Whittier.

Snow Bound. { The Fireside Picture. }
 { The Snow Picture. } Whittier.

Sir Launfal and the Leper. Lowell.

Paragraph Incidents.

Bread upon the Waters Cast will Return to you at Last.
Pride Goeth before a Fall.

Character Traits.

Self-sacrifice.
Perseverance.

In the Country.

Whittier's Home.
A Beautiful Road.
A Lonely Spot.

COMPOSITION CRITICISM

Class criticisms of pupils' compositions will help to bring out faults in paragraphing. The compositions may be copied on the board, and errors may be pointed out and remedies suggested by the different members of the class.

Another good method of criticising the paragraphs of a composition is to ask pupils to exchange papers and make the criticisms suggested by definite questions; as,

1. Is the composition indented correctly?
2. Does each paragraph bring out a particular topic?
3. Can you add anything of interest to make some of the paragraphs fuller?
4. Do all the sentences in each paragraph belong to the topic of the paragraph?
5. Does each new sentence in every paragraph tell something new and interesting?



BIRTHPLACE OF WHITTIER, HAVERHILL, MASS.

TO THE TEACHER. *The Key to Marks of Criticism*, together with the facsimile compositions which follow, may be useful to pupils in making self-criticism, or in criticising the work of other pupils.

A KEY TO MARKS USED IN CRITICISMS OF COMPOSITIONS

Cl = Not clear

Sp = Word misspelled

Gr = Error in grammar

P = Error in punctuation, or lack of punctuation.

R = Repetition of word or idea.

¶ = New paragraph begins here.

No ¶ = Paragraph should not begin here.

U = Sentence lacks unity.

¶ *U* = Paragraph lacks unity.

Comb. = Combine.

Cond. = Condense.

(?) = Doubtful use.

Sup. = Superfluous or unnecessary.

O = Omit.

Syl. = Syllables incorrectly divided.

K = Awkward expression.

Tr. = Transpose.

^ = Something omitted

A Paragraph Incident

I was alone in the house, and it was growing late. Suddenly I heard a queer noise in the living room below. I decided that I ^{sup}would go down-

1-2-Are these sentences necessary?

stairs and investigate I hastily descended the stairway. [As soon as I had reached the bottom of the stairway, my courage deserted me] As I entered the room from which the sound came, I felt all my bravery leaving me. [I turned my frightened gaze toward a dark corner. There, to my horror, I saw a crouching figure, with big, fiery eyes.] Too terrified to move, I stood rooted to the spot for several moments. After a few moments

Will you please Comb.

had passed, I summoned up my lost courage. With restored ^Rbravery, I boldly approached the figure. As I ^Rapproach-
^Red, ~~the~~ ^Rfigure ^Rarose, came slowly ^Rtoward me. When it reached me, I saw-

Comb.

our old black cat.

Howard Smith, age 14

Your little story is ineffective for these reasons:

1. Too many sentences are used.
 2. Each sentence does not make a full step in the paragraph.
 3. There is too much repetition of words and ideas.
 4. Unnecessary details are related.
- Rewrite in seven or eight sentences.

A Paragraph on Football

Football is a most delightful game, and it has many advantages. In the first place, ^{for} it is a healthy sport, as it develops the muscles and stirs up the blood. [It is a little rough, of course, and there is some danger unless the players are very careful. Once in a while an unfair player takes advantage of his opponent, and purposely deals him ~~bad~~ ily injury; but this does not occur often.]

The game also helps to train the mind, making it more alert and active. It teaches every player to be on ^{his} their guard at every moment, and to be ready for action, whatever happens.

There are several respects in which straight football differs from soccer football. In the American game, there is more danger, as there is a great deal of tackling; and therefore the body is more likely to be injured. In straight

Do these sentences
bear upon your topic?

Is ante-
cedent of
their
singular
, plural?

Does the
rest of
your com-
position
discuss
advantages
of football?

How can you make the distinction between the American and the Rugby games clearer?
K
football, the playing is mostly done with the hands, and is a more closed game; in soccer, ^{the} the goal-tender is the only one allowed to touch the ball with the hands, the other members kicking it. In the Rugby game, ^{the} the little fellow has as much chance as the big player, because the scoring depends, not upon four or five men, as in regular football, but upon all the players. Soccer is not so dangerous, but I should rather play the manly American game.

Harold Taylor Age 12

Explanation is good. Can you state the separate topics which you have written about?

Into how many paragraphs should your composition be divided?

A Foolhardy Experience

Story interesting and well told.

At the Buffalo Pan-American Exposition, a few years ago, I had a narrow escape.

What word may be used, instead of Alaskan to describe the bear?
As my mother and I were passing through the Alaskan Exhibit, we were attracted to the cage of a huge ^RAlaskan bear, who was eating his dinner.

Being eager to make the bear's acquaintance, I pushed nearer, and was soon directly in front of the iron cage in which he was confined.

The bear's back was toward me, and without thinking of danger, I thrust my hand through the bars and patted his smooth & glossy side.

Quick as a flash, he turned, and his little eyes snapped fire as he sprang forward to seize my hand. As I drew it back, I felt his hot breath upon it.

I saw his teeth come together with a snap, a small fraction of an inch

Your vocabulary is excellent.

away from my hand.

With a terrible roar, he hurled himself against the side of the cage, in a vain attempt to escape. Just at this critical moment, the keeper seized a pole and forced him back to his meal. Then he turned to me with the injunction to quit "monkeying" with the animals unless I wanted a piece bitten out of me.

I was only four years old at the time, but since then, I have resolved never to pet wild animals until I am sure of their good intentions.

John Henderson

Age 13 years

Your story is written in too many paragraphs. Rewrite it, following this plan:

1st Par. — Introduction.

2nd Par. — Encounter with the bear.

3rd Par. — Action and words of the keeper.

4th Par. — Conclusion. 282

CHAPTER XI

THE WORD

161. Word Study

While we are trying to enlarge and strengthen our vocabularies, let us remember these directions:

Observe the speech of those who talk well.

Use the dictionary frequently. Look up at once each new word.

In your speech and in your writing, use each new word until it becomes your own.

EXERCISE

I. *For the definition of the italicized words in the following sentences, consult the list of words defined on pages 292-297. Are these words used properly? Do you use them correctly? Copy the sentences, using the right word in place of each italicized word. Use each italicized word correctly in a sentence of your own.*

1. The weather in London was *awful* on account of the fog and dampness.
2. I *expect* he came yesterday.
3. I *calculate* to go to-morrow.
4. My cousin was dark *complexioned*.
5. Rich foods are not *healthy*.

6. We had a *nice* time at the game.
7. Brother's action *aggravated* mother.
8. There are *less* students enrolled this term.
9. Our teacher was *mad* because we failed in recitation.
10. She gave us a good *receipt* for fudge.
11. Lillian gave me a *couple* of peaches.
12. I do *love* ices and salads.
13. I am perfectly *crazy* about the scenery in Scotland.
14. John is slow to learn, but he is good-natured and *clever*.
15. We are *liable* to be promoted at the end of the term.

II. Write a list of the italicized words in the sentences below. Place opposite each word the meaning which the use of the word, as given in the exercise, suggests to you. Compare the meanings which you have written with the meanings given in the dictionary.

1. His business methods brought him *financial* gain, but they cost him his reputation.
2. Our *commercial* relations were of a satisfactory nature.
3. The coal was *accessible* both by rail and by water, but it was not *available* because of a lack of necessary machinery.
4. His *consciousness* of wrong-doing caused him to become deeply *melancholy*.
5. We followed an *intricate* path through the forest.
6. The eastern coast is made warmer by its *proximity* to the gulf stream.
7. His only *alternative* was to turn and run.
8. Mother was forced to be *economical*.
9. The youth's actions were *crude* and *blustering*.

Use the italicized words in the preceding sentences in sentences of your own. Try to give to each word the sense in which it is used in the exercise.

III. Can you tell why many people confuse the meanings of the words in each of the following pairs? Do you understand their uses?

loose — lose

affect — effect

accept — except

emigrate — immigrate

respectfully — respectively

character — reputation

Consult the list of words given on pages 292–297 for the meanings of the words in this exercise; then write sentences which will show that you know the differences in the uses of the words.

IV. Give definitions for the italicized words in the following sentences; then write sentences of your own, using the words in similar senses. If the meanings of the words are not clear to you, consult the dictionary.

1. L. S. Ayers & Company are making an *invoice* of their stock.

2. The teacher was asked to make an *inventory* of all the books in the rental library.

3. There is great *competition* in business.

4. The *ascent* was a most *perilous* one.

5. Although mother was *economical* in the home, she was always *charitable* to the poor.

6. Diphtheria is now *prevalent* in the southern part of the state.

7. The home was furnished in *luxurious* style.

8. The valley of the Amazon River is noted for its *luxuriant* vegetation.

162. Synonyms and Antonyms

Synonym is a term applied to words having *almost* the same meaning as certain other words; as, *kind* is a synonym of *gentle*.

Antonym is a term applied to words which are opposed in meaning to other words; as, *mild* is an antonym of *severe*.

If we continually use but *one* word to express several similar ideas, we shall be at a disadvantage in two ways. First, we shall not be able to say precisely what we intend; for each word has its own shade of meaning, and therefore has a slightly different use from that of the other words which are its synonyms. For example, *lazy* is a synonym of *idle*; *bold* and *daring* are synonyms of *brave*; yet we prefer to be called *idle* rather than *lazy*, and *brave* rather than *bold* or *daring*. Second, we shall make our speech and our writing tiresome by using, again and again, words which should be varied through the use of *synonyms* and *antonyms*.

EXERCISE

I. Consult the dictionary, then write two or three synonyms and one or two antonyms for each of the following words:

Example

<i>Word</i>	<i>Synonyms</i>	<i>Antonyms</i>
tired	fatigued wearied	rested refreshed

frank, fearless, lazy, generosity, plenty, beauty, falsehood, create, frugal, annoy, cowardly, injure

II. *Explain how the following statements may be true, although they seem inconsistent:*

1. He had *knowledge* in abundance, but was lacking in *wisdom*.
2. His *information* could not be called *learning*.
3. Radium was *discovered* not *invented*.
4. His *character* was bad; his *reputation* was good.
5. A straight line has a *middle* point, but cannot have a *center*.
6. She was *modest* but not *bashful*.
7. The carpenter was *idle* last week, but he was not *lazy*.
8. The burglar was *bold* and *daring*, but he was not *brave*.
9. I shall *request* him to do this favor for me, but I shall not *implore* it.
10. He practiced *deceit*, although he uttered no *lie*.
11. He is a prompt *pupil* and a good *student*, but he will never become a *scholar*.

III. *The words in each of the following pairs are often incorrectly used as synonyms. Write sentences showing that you know the differences in meaning and use of each pair of words. (Consult the List of Words Frequently Misused, pages 292-297.)*

suspect — expect	majority — plurality
suspicion — suspect	healthy — healthful
affect — effect	learn — teach
in — into	stay — stop
less — fewer	couple — two
middle — center	eligible — legible
lazy — idle	bold — brave

163. Contrast Expressed through Antonyms

In the following compound sentences, contrast is clearly expressed through the uses of *antonyms*. Note that the connective *but* is omitted between the contrasted statements and that the semicolon (;) is used instead.

Uncas was *brave* and *fearless*; his companion was *cowardly* and *cringing*.

The Iroquois were *hostile* and *treacherous*; the Mohawks were *friendly* and *loyal*.

The early Romans were distinguished for their *virtue*; those of a later period were noted for their *vice*.

EXERCISE

I. Write compound sentences like the preceding ones to express contrast. Use the following antonyms:

beauty — ugliness	prudent — foolish
frugal — extravagant	harsh — mild
generosity — stinginess	patriotic — disloyal

II. Copy and place opposite each of the following words an antonym. Write antonyms wholly different in form from the words themselves; do not make use of the prefixes *im*, *in*, *dis*.

hope	goodness	zeal	gentle
love	aggravate	peaceful	faith
luxury	prudence	excite	frail
create	straightforward	wise	feeble
true	grief	win	rough

164. Choice of Words

Read the following paragraph aloud. What different words and phrases does the writer use to make us feel the *dreamy enjoyment* of the people in the boat?

The measured dip of our oars, and the drowsy twittering of the birds, seemed to mingle with, rather than to break, the enchanted silence that reigned about us. The scent of the new clover comes back to me now, as I recall that delicious morning, when we floated away in a fairy boat down a river, like a dream.

EXERCISE

I. *Tell the story of an experience in a storm on the water. First describe the coming of the storm, its effect upon the sky and waters, its sound and its increasing fury. Then tell of your struggles with the boat, of your escape and of the breaking up of the storm. Let the story begin in this way:*

We were far out on the water in a frail boat. All day the weather had been fair and our sailing smooth. Suddenly we noticed that a storm was close at hand.

II. *Write a paragraph telling what you saw and heard and felt as you wandered through a beautiful wood.*

As I entered the woods, the fragrance
Farther in, everywhere I saw Here the sounds
of the busy world outside were replaced by Pene-
trating still deeper into the forest, I suddenly came upon
. On its banks grew Reflected in its
clear waters were As I passed out of the woods,
.



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THE GOOSE GIRL

III. *Tell about some big fire which you have witnessed. Describe the excited action of the people; of the firemen, and of the horses. Your account might begin in this way:*

When I arrived at the burning building, I saw the wildest confusion. Dense columns of smoke The flames Already the roof

IV. *Write lists of words which you might wish to use in describing the picture on the opposite page:*

- (1) The beauty of the girl's face.
- (2) Her sadness.
- (3) Her dress.
- (4) Her position.
- (5) The dog.
- (6) The flowers.

V. *Write lists of words and phrases which you might use if you wished to write on these:*

An Exciting Runaway.

A Bit of Wild Scenery.

VI. *Write in answer to the following imaginary proclamation, an imaginary protest by Lean Bear, an Indian Chief (see picture on page 293):*

THE PROCLAMATION

Lean Bear, the President of the United States has sent me with a powerful army to cause you and your tribe to join that part of your people who have already found homes west of the Mississippi. Before another full moon has passed, every man, woman, and child in your tribe must be in motion to join your brethren in the West.

Let the *Protest* begin in this way:

THE PROTEST

White Chief, you may say to the Great Father at Washington, that Lean Bear refuses to lead his people be-

yond the Father of Waters. Before the Pale Faces came over the big sea, all the land between the Rising and the Setting Sun belonged to the Red man. The Great Spirit gave it to him for his home.

SUGGESTION

In completing the protest, you may make use of some of these facts:

The Red man was the original occupant of America. The Pale Face drove him farther and farther west, paying him little or nothing for his lands. The Pale Face brought the wicked fire-water; he made bargains and treaties with the Indians, and broke them; he tortured the Indians who resisted his wrongs. Civilization destroyed the bison, the Indians' chief source of food, and it robbed the streams of their great supplies of fish. The Indians, as a result of their frequent removals to more and more barren lands, suffered every privation. They lost hope, and those who did not die of starvation, became weak and helpless.

TO THE TEACHER. Reading aloud some of the good Indian speeches found in Cooper's *Last of the Mohicans*, will give the pupils familiarity with the simple, picturesque language of the Indians.

165. A List of Words Frequently Misused

Accept, except. These words are sometimes confused in use. Say, "I *accept* your kind invitation"; not, "I *except*, etc." (Consult dictionary for meanings.)

Affect, effect. *Affect* means to produce a change, or to exercise an influence upon; *effect* means to *bring about* or *produce* something; as, How does the gulf stream *affect*



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THE PROTEST

(change) the climate of England? The doctor *effected* (brought about) a hasty cure of the disease.

Aggravate. *Aggravate* in its true sense means *to make more intense*; as, The fever *aggravated* the pain. Do not use *aggravate* for the words *annoy*, *irritate*, or *exasperate*. Say, "I was *irritated* by the noise"; not, "I was *aggravated*, etc."

Awful. Should be used to express *awe*. It should not be used for the word *very*. Say, "I am *very* glad"; not, "I am *awfully* glad."

Bold, brave. *Bold* means *daring*; *brave* means *nobly courageous*. A burglar may be *bold*, but he cannot be *brave*.

Clever. *Clever* is often incorrectly used to mean *generous* or *kind*. It really means *bright* or *intelligent*. A stupid person may be *kind*; he is not *clever*.

Crazy. A slang expression carelessly used for the words *enthusiastic* and *eager*. Do not say, "I am *crazy* about the scenery"; say "I am *enthusiastic* over the scenery," or "I like the scenery."

Complected. Do not use the word *complected* for *complexioned*. Say, "He was dark *complexioned* (not dark *complected*)."

Couple, two. The word *couple* may be used in speaking of a married or betrothed pair of people. Do not use the word simply in the sense of *two*. Say, "*Two* eggs" (not a *couple* of eggs).

Character, reputation. The following distinction is frequently made between *character* and *reputation*; *Character* is what you are; *reputation* is what people think you are.

Expect, suppose. Do not use *expect* for *suppose*, *think*, or *believe*. "To *expect* a thing" means to *look forward* to some *happening*. "To *suppose* a thing" means to *assume* that something is true. Never use *expect* in referring to *past*

time. I *expect* to go abroad next year. I *suppose* that all the seats have been engaged by this time. I *believe* that he is wholly reliable.

Emigrate, immigrate. *Emigrate* means *going out* of a country; *immigrate* means *coming into* a country.

Eligible, legible. Words often confused in use because of their similarity of sound. *Eligible* means *entitled to hold office* or *worthy to be chosen* for something. A foreign-born man is not *eligible* to the presidency of the United States. *Legible* means *easy to read*. His writing is *legible*.

Healthy, healthful, wholesome. The child is *healthy* because he lives in a *healthful* climate and eats *wholesome* food. Meat may be *healthy* (not diseased) and still not be *wholesome*. The climate of Arizona is *healthful* (health-giving) to those who have lung diseases.

In, into. *In* denotes *place*; *into* denotes *entrance*. He walked restlessly about *in* his narrow cell. He was led *into* the court room. He fell *into* the water. He remained *in* the water one hour.

Invent, discover. *Invent* means to *create* or *make* something new; *discover* means to *come upon* or *find* something already in existence. Whitney *invented* the cotton gin. Balboa *discovered* the Pacific Ocean.

Information, learning. *Information* implies *any kind* of knowledge; *learning* is applied to knowledge obtained from books and teachers. One may have *information* in regard to a murder or a robbery and still be without *learning*.

Knowledge, wisdom. *Knowledge* is a term used to denote *information* or *learning*; *wisdom* implies *good judgment* or *discretion*. One may be very *learned* and yet lack *wisdom*.

Lazy, idle. *Lazy* and *idle* are synonyms. The former, however, means *habitually idle*; the latter means *unoccu-*

piet. One may be *idle* (by necessity) and yet not be *lazy* (inclined to shirk labor).

Learn, teach. *Learn* means to *acquire knowledge or learning*; *teach* means to *impart knowledge*. Do not say, "He *learned* me arithmetic"; say, "He *taught* me arithmetic."

Less, fewer. *Less* is applied to *quantity*; *fewer* to *number*. Do not say, "We have *less* students enrolled this year"; say, "We have *fewer* students enrolled."

Love. Often used thoughtlessly in place of *like, enjoy, admire, fond of*. We *like* ice-cream; we *love* people; we *enjoy* a good dinner; we are *fond of* sailing; we *admire* a great man.

Lose, loose. Terms often confused in spelling. If the clasp is *loose*, you may *lose* your pin.

Liable, likely. *Liable* suggests probable *loss or danger*; *likely* means *probable*. The aviator is *liable* to meet death at any time. The train is not *likely* to arrive on time.

Mad, angry. *Mad* means *insane*; *angry* means *strongly provoked*. Say, "My friend was *angry* with me"; do not say, "My friend was *mad* at me."

Majority, plurality. In describing the results of elections we sometimes confuse these terms. A candidate who receives more than half of the entire number of votes cast for an office is said to have a *majority*. A candidate who has a larger number than any other candidate, is said to have a *plurality*.

Middle, center. *Middle* is applied to a point halfway between two other *opposite* points. *Center* is applied to a point equally distant from all the extremities of a line, figure, or body. We may stand in a *middle* part of a room — that is, half way between the east and west side — and still not be standing in the center, — a point *halfway between the east and the west side* and also *halfway between the north and the south ends*.

Modest, bashful. *Modest* means *unassuming* or *not self-assertive*; *bashful* means *shy, embarrassed*. His manner, though *modest*, bore no trace of awkward *bashfulness*.

Nice. *Nice* means *exact* or *precise*; it does not mean *pretty, pleasant, beautiful*, or the half dozen other words for which we often incorrectly use it. We may speak of a *nice* line, meaning an *exact* line; but we should not say "a *nice* day," a "*nice* dress," "a *nice* house."

Pupil, student, scholar. A *pupil* is an attendant at school. A *student* is one who studies, in school or out. A *scholar* is one who has acquired considerable learning.

Receipt, recipe. A *receipt* is an acknowledgment of something received, especially *of goods or money*. A *recipe* is a formula for mixing certain ingredients of food or medicine; as, A *receipt* for fifty dollars; a *recipe* for candy.

Respectfully, respectively. *Respectfully* denotes *respect*; *respectively* denotes *order*.

Stop, stay. *Stop* means a momentary break in action; *stay* implies length of time. I cannot *stop* at the grocery, as I am in a hurry. I shall *stay* in Denver a month.

Suspect, expect. *Suspect* means to *mistrust* some one; to believe some one guilty of wrong-doing. *Expect* means to *look forward* to some happening. Do not say, "I *suspect* he will come to-morrow"; say, "I *expect* him to come to-morrow."

CHAPTER XII

LETTER WRITING

Few of us expect to write poetry, or novels, or essays, but we all wish to know how to talk well on paper, so that we may be able to write clear and interesting letters. When we have learned what to say in a letter and how to say it, we shall be able to send agreeable messages to our friends who are too far away to speak with us, and we shall be able to make our ideas clear when we need to transact business in writing. We may spoil the effect of what we have to say by writing it in bad form.

166. The Parts of a Letter

Custom requires us to divide our letters into the following parts: the *heading*, the *salutation*, the *body*, the *conclusion*, and the *address*. The items on the envelope are called the *superscription*.

NOTE. The *address* is generally omitted from a friendly letter, but it should never be omitted from a business letter.

The forms on the following pages show the arrangement and the punctuation of the parts of a letter.

THE SUPERScription OR THE ITEMS ON THE ENVELOPE

I

<div><p>STAMP</p></div> <div><p>MISS EMILY MOORE 326 TALBOTT AVENUE BOISE CITY, IDAHO</p></div>

II

<div><p>FROM JAMES MULLIN, R.R. No. 4, MADISON, WISCONSIN,</p></div> <div><p>STAMP</p></div> <div><p>MRS. FLORENCE P. HAYDEN, MIAMI, FLORIDA.</p></div> <div><p>CARE, MRS. JOHN GIFFORD.</p></div>

NOTE. The address of the writer is frequently omitted from the envelope. In view of the possibility that a letter

may be lost in the mail, it is safer not to omit the writer's address.

FORM FOR LETTER OF FRIENDSHIP

1814 Elm St.,
CAMBRIDGE, MASS.,
June 16, 1915.

[HEADING]

[SALUTATION]

DEAR CEDRIC:

Your description of the mimic battle was indeed vivid_____

[BODY]

I trust that you may have a pleasant vacation.

[COMPLIMENTARY CLOSE]

Affectionately yours,

[SIGNATURE]

ANNIE KEAY.

[CONCLUSION]

NOTE. No part of a letter should extend into the margin.

NOTE. Which of the following salutations suggest intimate relationship? Which suggest mere acquaintanceship?

DEAR COUSIN,

DEAR MRS. ALLEN:

DEAR OLD COMRADE,

DEAR FRIEND:

DEAR CONSTANCE,

MY DEAR MISS ALICE:

NOTE. All the nouns used as important words in a salutation should be capitalized. No other word, except the first, is capitalized.

NOTE. Which of the following words of closing suggest intimate friendship or loving relationship? Which suggest mere acquaintanceship?

Lovingly yours,	Affectionately yours,
Cordially yours,	Your loving daughter,
Your devoted friend,	Sincerely yours,

167. Good Form in Letter Writing

These directions may help you to write your letters in good form:

1. Do not write a letter on showy paper or on paper with ruled lines. You will show good taste by using a good quality of white or tinted linen paper.

2. Never write a letter in *pencil*.

3. Leave a neat margin all around each page. Let your top margin on the first page, above the heading, be about an inch and a quarter wide. Keep all other margins from a half to three quarters of an inch wide. The right-hand margin should be slightly narrower than the left-hand one.

4. Begin each paragraph, after the first, a half or three quarters of an inch from the left-hand margin.

5. Number in the upper right-hand corner the pages following the first page of your letter.

6. Arrange the sheets in order, then fold them in such a way that your letter will fit neatly into your envelope. The sheets should be made to suit the size of the envelope.

7. Do not begin your letter with an excuse. You may offend the friend to whom you are writing by saying at the start, *Having nothing else to do, I have decided to write you a letter.*

8. Do not begin your letters with worn-out statements, such as, *I now take my pen in hand to let you know that I am*

well, etc., and, You will doubtless be surprised to hear from me. Begin your talk as you would begin a conversation. Always keep in mind that a good letter is written talk.

9. Do not end your letter with an apology; as, *Since I can think of nothing else to say, I must bring my letter to a close;* or, *As the dinner bell is ringing, I must stop for this time.* An expression of good will toward your friend or toward those who are dear to him makes a better ending; as, *I do hope you will succeed splendidly in your new work;* or, *Please tell your mother how much I appreciate her kindness to me during my last visit with you.*

10. In a letter to a friend do not use abbreviated words; as, *rec'd, inst., Resp'y, y'rs.*

NOTE. A recent examination of a large number of letters shows that the majority of good letter writers close the body of a letter with the last sentence. Few of them end their letters with expressions like the following:

Hoping to see you soon, I am,
Trusting that . . . , I am,
Expecting to . . . , I remain,

EXERCISE

I. Which of these beginnings and endings sound like talk? Which sound unnatural?

BEGINNINGS

DEAR —,

Last Monday we had our sixth annual football game, Freshmen gloriously defeating Sophomores

DEAR JAMES,

Your letter came to hand, and was very much enjoyed
.

MY DEAR FRIEND:

I will now try to answer your letter which was interesting

MY DEAR ROSE:

I am writing in such a curious place — a mill, with such a funny little room in it, all stuffed with birds

ENDINGS

Add as many kind expressions from the dictionary as this sheet will possibly hold, and I will be responsible for every one of them.

Very truly yours,

Please excuse this bad letter this time, and I shall try to do better in my next.

Your friend,

I am glad if you like my books. They are all about the same subject, — the only one that seems to me worth writing about, — Life. And this is what I hope you will have (in the real sense), and use it for the highest ends, and enjoy it forever.

Sincerely yours,

II. *Copy on a sheet of unruled linen letter paper the following letter written by Thomas H. Huxley to his son. Supply all the parts of a letter which are lacking, placing each part in the correct position. (See forms on page 300.) Date the letter London, July 9, 1884.*

Your mother reminds me that to-morrow is your eighteenth birthday and, though I know my "happy returns" will reach you a few hours late, I cannot but send them.

You are touching manhood now, my dear laddie, and I

trust that, as a man, your mother and I may always find reason to regard you as we have done throughout your boyhood.

The great thing in the world is not so much to seek happiness as to earn peace and self-respect. I have not troubled you much with paternal didactics, but that bit is "over-true" and worth thinking over.

III. *Make two drawings to represent letter sheets six and one half by five inches. Place within the drawings, in their correct positions, the heading, the salutation, the complimentary close, and the signature for the following:*

1. A letter from Helen Hopkins, who lives at 14 Cornell Avenue, Denver, Colorado, to Dr. M. A. Spink, of Orlando, Florida.

2. A letter written August 9, 1903, by Jennie Wright of San Francisco, to her father John Wright, who is living at the Imperial Hotel, London, England.

IV. *Draw an outline of the form of an envelope and write the correct superscription for the letters which you have written.*

Friendly Letters

NEW HAVEN, CONN.,
December 1, 1903.

MY DEAR FRIENDS:

I am very glad to have the honor of writing you a letter, because it is pleasant to think of you and imagine what you are doing; but especially, because I shall have the pleasure of hearing from you.

I shall begin by telling you what I am doing here in New Haven. It will amuse you, perhaps, to hear that I am going

to school. At any rate, I am a student in the Music Department of Yale University. I think I learn my lessons better than I did when I was a school boy.

Perhaps you would like to learn something about Yale University. It is situated near the center of New Haven, although its forty-one buildings are so scattered that you could hardly pass through the city without seeing one or more of them. Some of these buildings are very old, and their weather-beaten brick walls could tell us a great many interesting stories if they could speak. Yale College was founded over a quarter of a century before George Washington was born, while New Haven was but a small settlement, surrounded by forests; Indians still lurked in these forests, making travel to the other settlements in New England a dangerous undertaking.

When you come to New Haven, besides seeing the University, you will surely want to go to the top of East Rock, a high wooded hill near the city. As we ride to its summit, over the well-made road that circles round and round among the trees, you will hardly realize you are going up hill, so slight is the grade. Near the top an opening through the trees gives us a picturesque view of hills and valleys, stretching far away to the north.

I am sure you are having a busy and happy school year. Write me about your school life. Also tell me about anything of interest that has happened this winter. I send you my best wishes for a happy and successful New Year.

Sincerely your friend,

EDWARD BAILEY BIRGE.

The foregoing letter was written to school boys and girls like yourselves. Imagine it is written to you.

Does Mr. Birge's letter sound like talk? Is he talk-

ing to you of things you like to hear about? Does he tell you enough about each subject to satisfy you? Can you see the things he is telling you about? Does Mr. Birge keep *you* in mind throughout his letter? What questions does he ask you? What polite request does he make of you? Does he show in other ways that he is thinking of *you* and talking to *you*? What does each paragraph after the second tell you? Does each paragraph tell you many different things, or does each tell you a great deal about *one* thing?

168. Letters Written in Reply

Do you enjoy a conversation with a friend who does all his talking about himself and his own affairs, and who shows no interest in what you have to say? Don't you feel a little bit uncomfortable when you are talking to a friend who passes over your part in the talk without remark, or who is so absorbed in telling you of his own selfish plans that he forgets to answer your questions?

When you answer a friend's letter, your reply simply represents your part in the conversation. If you want to hold up your side of the talk well, you must show a genuine interest in what your friend has said to you. You can do this by referring politely to the subjects of chief interest in his letter, and by answering all the questions which he has asked. It is always best to remember the things and places in which your reader is interested.

EXERCISE

I. The following is a letter in reply to one written by the poet, N. P. Willis. It was written by a young school girl. Is it a good reply? Why?

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.,
MAY 14, 1844.

TO THE FORMER OWNER OF GLENMARY.

MY DEAR SIR:

Your letter makes me feel the responsibility which must rest upon me when I come to Glenmary to live. I am grateful to you for giving me a glimpse of the beautiful bit of earth which now belongs to me. You have shown me how to become worthy of such a home, and how to treat its happy tenants—the trees and flowers, and birds and squirrels. I am sorry that you must leave them all. They will miss you, I am sure.

The little glen you love so well shall remain as I find it. As I listen to the pleasant music of the brook, and smell the fragrant wild flowers that grow there, I shall think of you, with the wish that you may find happiness in your new home.

Yours cordially,
ALICE REEVES LONDON.

II. *Write the reply which is suggested for the following interesting letter. Be careful, as you write to keep in mind the letter which you are answering.*

VIENNA, AUSTRIA,
JUNE 18, 1911.

MY DEAR WALTER,

Your letter gave me a great deal of pleasure. On my return from my present European trip, you may certainly count on my accompanying you to the coal mines you men-

tioned. I have always wished to go down in a mine, and your account of the West Virginia coal fields aroused my interest anew.

I, too, have been passing through an experience which you may be interested to hear about. You probably know that I have been tramping through the Alps for several weeks with my Uncle. In the course of this trip we did some mountain climbing; and I have become so proficient in this that last week that I actually succeeded in reaching the top of the Rodello, one of the highest mountains in the Eastern Alps.

We started at six o'clock in the morning, so as to escape the heat of the day. About two hours' climbing brought us to the point where the trees were becoming scarce, and the earth barren and rocky. From this point we could first see the summit, and could climb straight towards it. This was the most wearying part of the climb, since we could always see the goal, but never seemed to come near. To this difficulty was added a wet and spongy soil, which caused frequent slipping backwards. However, about two hours more of somewhat difficult climbing brought us to the top.

Our feelings, when we had finally mastered the ascent, fully repaid us for any trouble we had experienced. The mountains, which, during the beginning of the ascent were hidden from us by trees, and later by the unfavorable position of the trail, now appeared in their full beauty. We took a position behind a great boulder for our noon resting place, a position from which we could see not only the snow-capped Alps, but also the fields of waving grain, and the little villages we had left behind us. Here the bread and cheese we had brought along came in very handy, for we were nearly famished from our hard climb.

But while we were still admiring the wonderful scenery, the lengthening shadows in the valley awoke us to the fact that the afternoon was far advanced, and the decent was begun. This part of our trip was travelled over speedily. However, short as it was, the downward trip was tiring, and it was a very weary and footsore party that returned to the inn that evening. But we still look upon that climb as the finest part of our entire tour.

If you write me again, I should be pleased to hear of any further adventures that you may have had during the summer. Please give my kindest regards to your family.

Very sincerely yours,

EMIL THÖRSCH.

III. What is it that makes the following letter written by Mr. Riley so delightful? Does the little girl's reply keep Mr. Riley's letter in mind? Do both letters sound like talk?

INDIANAPOLIS, IND.,

528 LOCKERBIE STREET,

October 6, 1911.

TO THE SCHOOL CHILDREN OF INDIANAPOLIS:

You are conspirators, every one of you, that's what you are; you have conspired to inform the general public of my birthday, and I am already so old that I want to forget all about it. But I will be magnanimous and forgive you, for I know that your intent is really friendly, and to have such friends as you are makes me—don't care how old I am! In fact it makes me so glad and happy that I feel as absolutely young and spry as a very school boy—even as one of you—and so to all intents I am.

Therefore let me be with you throughout the long, lovely day, and share your mingled joys and blessings with your

parents and your teachers, and in the words of little Tim Cratchit: "God bless you, every one."

Ever gratefully and faithfully your old friend,

JAMES WHITCOMB RILEY.

INDIANAPOLIS, IND.,

Oct. 8, 1911.

DEAR MR. RILEY:

I do not think that we school children are conspirators. Is there any harm in our spreading to the people who love you the knowledge that you have had a birthday? Besides, one's years don't count when one is so young in spirit as our own Hoosier poet. I am glad that you really like our effort to make the day a happy one. Stevenson's lines,

"The world is so full of a number of things
I am sure we should all be as happy as kings,"

tell exactly how we children feel when birthdays and Christmas days come around. We are all as happy as kings over your birthday, because you have brought so much joy, not only to our mammas and papas, but to us children as well. That is the reason why we are celebrating October the sixth so happily.

As you have a quotation in your letter to us, I am going to be a "copy-cat" and give one also, but I shall change the wording a little. Instead of saying, "God bless the master of this house," as the old Christmas carol says it, my version shall read, "God bless the master of Hoosier verse."

Your young friend,

EMILY MOORES.

169. Suggested Topics for Letters

1. Write to one of your friends who loves animals, a letter containing an interesting incident from animal life.

2. One of the boys in your class has been suspended from school. He feels that his suspension is unjust. Write the frank, courteous letter which you think he might write to the principal of your school.

3. Imagine yourself the child of one of the farmers whom Paul Revere warned of the approach of the British. Describe to your cousin in Philadelphia the scene in your home as Paul Revere rode by April 19, 1775.

4. Write a cheery letter to a friend who is homesick.

5. Write paragraphs for letters as follows: explaining how to play a certain game; how to make a special kind of candy; how to decorate a room for Halloween; how to improve your school.

6. Write a letter to your father trying to persuade him to allow you to join a club or go out camping.

7. Suppose you have offended one of your friends by a thoughtless remark. Write to her a letter of explanation and apology.

8. Write a letter to your teacher, telling her about your difficulties in writing.

170. Business Letters

If you write a *letter of application* in poor form, you will probably not secure the position which you are seeking. Business men sometimes judge the ability of the applicants solely by *letters of application*. If you write a poorly constructed *letter of recommendation* or of *introduction*, you will probably fail to aid the friend

for whose benefit you are writing. If you do not follow closely the forms which custom has set down for the writing of *business letters*, such as *advertisements and their answers*, *orders for goods*, *acknowledgments of the receipt of money or goods*, you will find yourself at a disadvantage in your business relations.

The following forms show the arrangement and the punctuation of the parts of a business letter:

FORMS FOR BUSINESS LETTERS

I

48 ELM AVE., MADISON, WIS.,
October 17, 1915.

MR. J. M. SMITH,
Room 198, Union Trust Bldg.,
CHICAGO.

DEAR SIR:

I am writing this letter in answer to your advertisement in the Chicago Tribune of the 14th inst., _____

I am,

Awaiting your response,

Yours very truly,
GEORGE E. MULLIN.

II

SALEM, PA., Jan. 26, 1915.

THE ATKINS SAW WORKS,
INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

GENTLEMEN:

Please ship goods as per enclosed order sheet_____

We shall be greatly obliged if you will give our order prompt attention.

Very truly yours,
THE BADGER FURNITURE CO.

Good Form in Business Letters

The following directions will help you to write business letters:

1. Do not omit any of the parts of a business letter.
2. Place the address of the person to whom you are writing at the left-hand side of the page, a space or two below the heading, — not below the closing, as in a friendly letter.
3. Do not make your salutation familiar, as in letters of friendship.

These are the common forms used in business letters.

DEAR SIR:

GENTLEMEN:

MY DEAR SIR:

DEAR MADAM:

4. Do not use "Respectfully yours" at the close, unless you intend to show special respect to some one. "Truly yours," "Very truly yours," or "Yours very truly" are

the common forms for the closing of ordinary business letters

5. Write your name *in full* at the close of your letter; as,

Truly yours,

THOMAS L. MORROW.

NOTE. An unmarried woman who writes a business letter to a firm not familiar with her name should prefix to her signature the title *Miss* in parentheses; as, (Miss) Ruth Wiley.

A married woman whose husband is living, signs her own name to all business letters, writing under it, in parentheses, her husband's name with the title *Mrs.* prefixed; as,

Very truly yours,

ETHEL STOUT.

(Mrs. Harvey B. Stout).

A widow signs her own name, with the title *Mrs.* prefixed in parentheses; as,

Truly yours,

(Mrs.) FRANCES SWAIN.

6. Do not end your business letters abruptly by saying, "Please reply immediately." It is more courteous to write, "I shall consider a reply made at your earliest convenience, a great favor," or "I shall be greatly obliged by an early reply."

The following are examples of good business letters. They are brief and clear, yet they are not abrupt or discourteous. They omit none of the essential parts of a letter and the parts are well placed. Note carefully the form of each letter.

A LETTER OF APPLICATION IN ANSWER TO AN
ADVERTISEMENT

WANTED—Competent foreman to oversee work in veneering department. Applicant must have had good industrial training and considerable experience in the work of finishing. Give qualifications fully, with references as to ability and character. Address Horace Jones, Jones & Stewart Factory, St. Paul, Minn.

118 WASHINGTON ST.,
Kalamazoo, Mich.,
July 20, 1915.

MR. HORACE JONES,
Jones and Stewart Factory,
St. Paul, Minn.

DEAR SIR:

I have read in the *St. Paul Morning Star* of the 19th inst. your advertisement for a foreman to oversee the work in the veneering department of your factory, and I wish to apply for the position.

I am a graduate of the Manual Training High School of Detroit, and I have had six years' experience as an expert finisher in the veneering department of the Sanders Furniture Factory of Detroit, where I am now employed as foreman. Mr. F. C. Sanders, manager of the firm, will tell you about my ability and character.

Yours very truly,
ERNEST MANLEY.

When you answer an advertisement, refer clearly, in the beginning, to the newspaper or magazine which contains the advertisement. When you apply for a position advertised, give all the information called for

by the advertisement and add whatever other facts may be helpful to you in securing the position.

A LETTER CONTAINING AN ORDER

WARREN, Mo., Nov. 7, 1915.

LEVINGS, COOPER Co.,
4 Park St., Boston.

DEAR SIRs: Please send me by return mail one copy of "The White Heron" by Sarah Orne Jewett. I am inclosing an express money order for one dollar and twenty-five cents (\$1.25) in payment.

Very truly yours,
JAMES FREEMAN.

NOTE. In ordering goods, mention the price of the goods ordered, and the method by which you are sending the money in payment, whether by *check*, or *draft*, or *postal money order*, etc. Do not inclose the money itself.

EXERCISE

I. Write a letter to the Curtis Publishing Company of Philadelphia, asking that *The Saturday Evening Post* be mailed to your summer address at Bay View, Mich., through the months of June, July, and August.

Write a letter to the S. L. Stewart Co., of Cincinnati, O., ordering a set of souvenir stamps or a list of books. Do not forget to mention the check or money order which you are inclosing in payment.

Write a letter to your school trustees, recommending some industrious, honest man that you know, for the position of janitor of your school building.

II. Write a letter accepting or declining a position which has been offered to you.

Your uncle has sent you a box of tools. Write a letter thanking him.

III. Write a letter to your grocer, calling his attention to an error in your account.

Write a letter to the owner of the vacant lot near your home, asking his permission to use the lot as a playground.

Write a reply to the captain of an opposing baseball team, accepting his request to play a game on some special day.

Write a letter to the mayor of your city asking him to speak to your class.

171. Advertisements and Telegrams

Since every word in advertisements and extra words in telegrams mean cost to the writer, these should contain only the words necessary to convey the writer's meaning. Sometimes words may be used in place of sentences; as,

SITUATION WANTED — By boy on a farm during summer vacation; can furnish best of references. Address Box 4112, *Evening News*.

FOR SALE — A country store; fine surrounding country; good huckster routes; good trading point; near railroad; will sell cheap for cash. Address A. Van Horn Kingman, Springfield, Ill., R.F.D. 3.

TELEGRAM

WASHINGTON, D. C., August 12, 1915.

MR. J. B. HART,
Decatur, Ill.

Terrible storm here this morning; many killed; your family safe.

M. L. RASE.

EXERCISE

I. *Write advertisements for the following:*

1. Describing a lost dog, a purse containing money, an old piece of jewelry.
2. Advertising for an errand boy, a salesman, or milliners' assistant.
3. Applying for a position in a newspaper office, on a farm, or in a factory. State qualifications and wages expected.

II. *Write an answer to the following advertisement:*

WANTED — A good stenographer and an office girl (or boy). Salary \$8 a week; increase when worth is proved. Answer must be in applicant's own handwriting. Address C. J. Adams, 110 North Main St.

III. *Write telegrams for the following:*

1. Explaining your failure to meet an engagement.
2. Announcing an unexpected visit.
3. Announcing the victory of your baseball team.
4. The dangerous rising of the river.

IV. A night letter is a telegram which may be sent at reduced rate during the night and delivered the following morning. The rate is fifty words at ten-word day message rate.

Write a night letter to your father or mother telling of something important which has happened to you during your summer vacation.

172. Invitations and Other Social Notes

Formal Notes

Formal invitations and other formal notes are written in the third person. They contain no heading, no salutation, no complimentary close, and no superscription. They are used to denote formal parties and other formal occasions.

The address of the writer is usually placed at the close of the note, on the left side.

No abbreviations, except titles, and no contractions are permissible in formal notes.

INVITATION

Mr. and Mrs. J. P. Sargent request the pleasure of Miss Smith's company at luncheon on Tuesday afternoon, June the twelfth, at four o'clock.

25 Market Street.

ACCEPTANCE

Miss Smith accepts with pleasure Mr. and Mrs. J. P. Sargent's kind invitation for Tuesday afternoon, June the twelfth, at four o'clock.

119 Pearl Street,
June the eighth.

NOTE. The day and hour mentioned in the formal invitation should be repeated in the reply.

Informal Notes

Informal notes do not differ much in form or style from the friendly letter, except that they are much briefer and are written on paper of smaller size.

Note the following forms and observe the parts of which they are composed.

DEAR MABEL,

We want you to go with us this afternoon to gather blackberries. Wear an old coat suit, stout shoes, and a big straw hat, and bring a basket.

Don't fail to meet us at Portage by two o'clock.

Lovingly yours,

BAY VIEW,

IDA.

August the third.

DEAR IDA,

I am so sorry I cannot go with you this afternoon to gather blackberries. I fell this morning and sprained my ankle slightly.

I hope you may have a jolly time and find an abundance of delicious blackberries.

Sincerely yours,

BAY VIEW,

MABEL.

August the third.

EXERCISE

I. *Write an informal invitation to one of your friends, asking her to spend a week with you during the Christmas vacation.*

II. *Write an informal acceptance to one of your friends who has invited you to spend the Thanksgiving vacation with him.*

III. *Write a formal invitation for each of the following:*

A five o'clock luncheon

A twelve o'clock dinner

A birthday party

IV. *Write a note thanking a friend for:*

Sending you the gift you most wanted.

Writing a letter of recommendation for you; or a letter of introduction.

CHAPTER XIII

THE SENTENCE

A good carpenter keeps in mind certain rules and principles which guide him in the joining of the various parts of the house which he is building. You, too, must keep in mind certain rules and principles which will guide you in the putting together of the words with which you are to build your sentences.

173. The First Principle of Sentence Building — Unity

When a sentence expresses *one complete thought* and *no more than one*, it has *unity*; as,

1. The sun was hiding its face behind a cloud.
2. Since it is raining, I shall not go.
3. The roof leaked; the shutters were broken, and the floors were rickety.

The first sentence states a single fact about the *sun*. The second sentence expresses the *one* thought that *the rain prevents my going somewhere*. The third sentence, although it contains three statements, has the one thought that the *house was out of repair*.

Ideas that do not Belong in a Sentence

Because we do not stop to think what our sentences are intended to tell, we frequently bring into them ideas which do not belong there.

I enjoy "The Deerslayer," by Cooper, because it tells us so much about Indian life, and because it is so full of lively descriptions, although, as a rule, I do not like lengthy descriptions, especially if they are written about scenery.

This sentence lacks *unity*, because it expresses *two* complete thoughts instead of *one*. The sentence is really intended to tell *why I like "The Deerslayer."* We can easily see, if we stop a moment to think, that *my not liking lengthy descriptions of scenery* has no connection with my reason for *enjoying the story*. To express the one thought which is intended, the sentence should read:

I enjoy "The Deerslayer," by Cooper, because it tells so much about Indian life and is full of lively descriptions.

A sentence which expresses unrelated ideas lacks unity.

EXERCISE

I. *Try to tell in a word or in a phrase the one thing which each of the following sentences tells about:*

Example

Dark angry clouds were gathering in the west; the roll of distant thunder now and then broke the silence, and the breeze was rapidly becoming a gale.

This sentence tells about the *coming of a storm*.

1. The foaming waves danced against their cliffs, and the

bleak winds blew over their forests; but the wind and the waves brought no adventurers to land upon the islands, and the savage Islanders knew nothing of the rest of the world, and the rest of the world knew nothing of them.

2. When the lark swelled with song again, . . . the rugged mouths opened and so stayed, and the shaggy lips trembled, and more than one tear trickled from fierce unbridled hearts down bronzed and rugged cheeks.

3. There were moss-grown rocks, half hidden among the old, brown, fallen leaves; there were rotten tree-trunks, lying at full length, where they had long ago fallen; there were decayed boughs, that had been shaken down, by the wintry gales, and were scattered everywhere about.

II. Rewrite each of the following sentences, leaving out the group which has no real connection with the principal idea of the sentence:

1. The picture of Mona Lisa was stolen from one of the great art galleries of Paris, one of the most beautiful as well as one of the most fascinating cities of the world.

2. We are now studying "Rip Van Winkle," a story written by Washington Irving, who also wrote "The Life of Columbus," a splendid story about Columbus and the Indians.

3. Milton was blind, and when he died, he had many mourners.

4. I like the study of history better than that of geography; but when I enter high school, I expect to study Latin.

5. Only a few things of value were saved from the fire; but the firemen acted bravely in saving the life of the little child.

III. Divide the following paragraph into as many sentences as there are complete thoughts expressed. Make

the division simply by using periods and capital letters in the proper places.

There had been a wind all day, and it was rising then with an extraordinary great sound in another hour it had much increased, and the sky was more overcast as the night advanced, the clouds closing in and densely overspreading the whole sky, it came on to blow harder and harder, until our horses could scarcely face the wind many times the leaders turned about or came to a dead stop; and we were often in serious apprehension that our coach would be blown over.

174. The Second Principle of Sentence Building — Clearness

When the words, phrases, and clauses of a sentence are well used, and well arranged, and well punctuated, *the meaning of the sentence is clear.*

You will not always find it easy to make your sentences clear to your readers or listeners. Some of the errors in sentence building, which may keep your thoughts from being plain to others, may be best understood through a study of examples.

Poor Arrangement

Note the following example to see why the meaning of the sentence is not clear:

We studied a long, difficult grammar lesson until midnight which had been assigned for the following day.

You can easily see that this sentence lacks clearness. The clause, *which had been assigned for the following*

day, seems to refer to *midnight* rather than to *lesson*, to which it really belongs. The confusion is caused by the *incorrect placing* of the phrase, *until midnight*. We may make the sentence clear by placing this phrase closer to the word it modifies; as,

We studied, *until midnight*, the difficult grammar lesson which had been assigned for the following day.

The words, phrases, and clauses of a sentence should be placed as near as possible to the words to which they belong.

EXERCISE

Rearrange the following sentences in such a way as to bring misplaced words, phrases, and clauses nearer the words to which they belong:

1. He was almost frightened to death.
2. A pair of old damask curtains were loaned to us by some kind old ladies, which could not be faded by the rain.
3. The doctor gave some medicine to his patient, which he thought would relieve the sore throat.
4. The aviator signed a contract to make five ascensions in his airship, with the managers of the street fair.
5. I am only studying mathematics this year.
6. The question of equal suffrage came up for debate to which all the boys were opposed.

175. Doubtful Reference of Pronouns

The landlord led the guest to his room, where he retired for the night.

This sentence is not clear, because the words *his* and *he* may refer either to the *landlord* or to the *guest*.

We cannot tell whose room is meant, nor can we tell who occupied the room for the night. We may make the sentence clear by using *definite* nouns in place of words of doubtful reference; as,

The landlord led the guest to *Room 12*, where the *traveler* retired for the night.

The captain of the Reds told David that, unless he acted differently, he might lose his position on the team.

The sentence is not clear, because we cannot decide whether the word *David* or the word *captain* is the antecedent of the words *he* and *his*; and thus we do not know whether it is David or the captain who is likely to lose his position on the team. We can make the meaning of the sentence clear by telling what the captain said, in the captain's own words; that is, by changing the *indirect quotation* to a *direct quotation*; as (assuming that *he* and *his* refer to David),

The manager said to David, "Unless *you* act differently, *you* are likely to lose *your* position on the team."

Or (assuming that *I* and *my* refer to the captain),

The manager said to David, "Unless *I* act differently, *I* shall likely lose *my* position on the team."

EXERCISE

I. Some of the following sentences may be made clearer by supplying *nouns* in place of the *words* whose antecedents are not clear; others may be made clearer by telling in the speaker's own words what the speaker

has said, or told, or asked; that is, by changing *indirect quotations* to *direct quotations* following the words *asked* or *said*.

Rewrite each sentence in such a way as to make the reference clear.

1. The policeman pursued the burglar until he fell exhausted from his wounds.

2. Willie asked if he thought he stood any chance of being promoted.

3. Our minister talked strongly against sin, last Sunday evening, but we enjoyed it thoroughly.

4. Frank told Henry that he knew he was mistaken all along, and that he was glad he had been manly enough to acknowledge his error. (Rewrite in two ways.)

II. *The following sentences are not clear in meaning, because the necessary commas have been omitted. Copy the sentences, placing the omitted commas where they belong.*

1. Yes Sir James I have visited your park.

2. Rebecca has the horse returned from pasture this morning?

3. I hereby bequeath all my personal property to my three daughters Mary Louise Margaret Irene and Laura.

4. As we entered the room was suddenly darkened.

5. I am to tell the truth sorry we entered into this contract.

6. Robert Brown the captain sends you this message. (This sentence may mean any one of three things. Punctuate in three ways.)

7. Whatever you do do with your might.

8. Studying diligently the boy soon learned his lesson.

176. Incorrect Uses of Compound Sentences

Because we do not keep in mind the true relation of one idea to another, or the real importance of the different ideas in a sentence, we frequently make the mistake of using a compound sentence in place of the complex sentence which our thought requires; or, on the other hand, of using a complex sentence in place of the necessary compound sentence.

Note carefully the following sentences to see why they are not well formed:

I entered the room, and I was surprised to find everybody gone.

This sentence is poorly formed. The idea expressed in the first principal clause is less important than the one which is expressed in the second, and should therefore be expressed in a *subordinate clause*. The *compound sentence* should be changed to a *complex*; as,

When I entered the room, I was surprised to find everybody gone.

EXERCISE

Combine into a complex, a compound, or a compound-complex sentence the short sentences in each of the following groups.

1. { The theater is magnificent.
It is located on Alabama Street.
2. { I came home this morning.
I found father ill.

3. { The soldier delivered the message.
It had been intrusted to him.
He returned to his post.
4. { Edgar is quick tempered.
I like him very much.
5. { Football is my favorite game.
It is played in this way.
6. { It is the beginning of a new term.
I am eager to turn over a new leaf.
7. { I received an invitation to the picnic.
The weather was disagreeable.
I did not go.

177. Variety in Sentence Forms

In order to secure greater variety in our sentences, we should observe these directions:

1. Do not make all your sentences long, or all of them short.

2. Vary the forms of sentences, using some complex, some simple, and some compound sentences.

3. Use, sometimes, introductory phrases and clauses. You may begin some sentences with words or groups of words which ordinarily come after the predicate; as,

How he performed the trick, none of us could tell.

4. Use, now and then, explanatory groups inclosed in dashes; as,

This elfish creature—for *he looked like a grotesque dwarf*—advanced from behind the rock, and began to pelt us with pieces of moss and bark.

5. Vary your connectives by using some other conjunctions besides *and* and *but*.

EXERCISE

I. *Vary in as many ways as you can, the structure, or forms, of the following sentences. Expand some groups, condense others, or change the order of words, phrases, or clauses.*

1. When the tournament came to an end, Manrico was awarded the victor's wreath of laurel.

2. Manrico, being both brave and daring in disposition, very early had the craving for adventure.

3. Meanwhile the stolen child was living the free and happy life of a gypsy.

4. Full of jealous rage, the count sprang between the pair and haughtily called upon the troubadour to declare his name.

5. Valiant as he was, the knight was defeated.

6. He is wise; he is brave; he is valiant.

7. How Marmion was wounded, the squires could not tell.

8. We pursued our journey by moonlight.

9. Senta had no sooner cast herself into the sea than the phantom-ship sank.

178. Sentences which do not Make Full Steps

A sentence which tells too little fails to make a real step in a composition.

For example, the three sentences following, taken together, make only one real step, or bring out one



important point. The first and second sentences express subordinate ideas of time which may be expressed in subordinate groups. The third sentence expresses the important point.

(1) It was a cold, rainy morning. (2) I was on my way to school. (3) I heard the shrill whistle of an engine.

Since these three sentences make but one real step, they should be combined into one sentence; as,

One cold, rainy morning, as I was on my way to school, I heard the shrill whistle of an engine.

EXERCISE

Write an account of a game of base ball, which this picture suggests to you. Try to make each sentence in

your paragraph make a full stop. Make use, in your paragraph, of the following sentence:

The pitcher hurried to cover first base, but it was a clean two base hit, and the runner was already on his way to second base.

CHAPTER XIV

COMPOSITION

179. Making Little Plays

One of the best ways to make a story seem real and delightful is to change it into a little play and then act it out.

A play is a story told, in dialogue and acting, by the characters themselves. The author of a story tells us what the characters say and do. He describes the *places where* and the *times when* the incidents occur. In a play, we hear the characters talk and we see them act. We need no descriptions to tell us when and where the incidents are occurring. The dress and conversation of the characters, together with the furnishings of the stage, tell us these things.

In writing a play, we may usually follow this plan:

(1) Write, in a list, the names of the characters and a brief explanation of each one.

(2) Write the setting; that is, the time and place of the action in the story.

(3) Divide the play into scenes. If the play is long, it is divided into acts, and each act is then divided into its proper scenes.

(4) Write stage directions and dialogue for each scene in its order.

TO THE TEACHER. Irving's story of "Rip Van Winkle," which is familiar to most pupils, is partly dramatized below. If pupils have not read the story, the parts which are necessary to the little play may be read to them several times. Then they may be asked to dramatize and act out the remaining scenes. Scenes from other work in literature may be dramatized in a similar way.

RIP VAN WINKLE: A PLAY

The Cast of Characters

RIP VAN WINKLE, a lazy, good-natured husband.

DAME VAN WINKLE, Rip's scolding wife.

NICHOLAS VEDDER, the village inn-keeper.

DERRICK VAN BUMMEL, the village school-master.

WOLF, Rip's dog and companion.

COMPANY OF DWARFS, the ghosts of Henrik Hudson's crew.

The Setting

TIME. Colonial times before and after the Revolutionary War.

PLACE. A little Dutch community among the Kaatskill Mountains.

Scenes

I. Before the War. Interior of a Dutch kitchen, neat and clean.

II. Before the War. A bench under a tree in front of Nicholas Vedder's Inn.

III. Before the War. A semicircle of wild rocks inclosing a grassy plot where a company of dwarfs are playing at nine-pins.

IV. After the War. A green, grassy knoll in the mountains. The awakening of Rip.

V. After the War. Village street in front of Jonathan Doolittle's Union Hotel.

Stage Directions

SCENE I. A Dutch kitchen, neatly but poorly furnished; coarse wooden table in the center of the room; two or three low, splint-bottomed chairs; spinning wheel in one corner; a churn in another; low, broad cupboard with a few blue and white dishes.

Dame Van Winkle is bending over a washtub rubbing clothes. Rip enters a door at the left, followed by his dog Wolf, who whines when he sees Dame Van Winkle. Rip is clad in ragged clothing, and he carries a gun over his shoulder.

Dialogue

DAME VAN W. (*Looking up and speaking with scorn.*) Ah! you and your worthless dog have been up in the mountains again! What have you brought home to pay you for your pains?

RIP VAN W. (*Shrugging his shoulders and casting up his eyes.*) Game was scarce to-day; I saw only one rabbit, and —

DAME VAN W. (*Interrupting Rip.*) This is only another one of your many excuses. Why do you not settle down to work? Our farm is falling into ruin through your laziness. Our children are poorly dressed and even hungry. Instead of helping me and providing food and clothing for them, you prefer to idle away your time in front of Nicholas Vedder's Inn, or to run errands for the village housewives, or to play games with troops of village children. Rip! Rip! why are you so shiftless?

RIP VAN W. Dame Van Winkle, I am not shiftless.

Luck is always against me. My farm is a pestilent piece of ground where nothing will grow. The fences are continually falling to pieces, and the cows just will get into my cabbage patch in spite of everything I can do. How can you place the blame upon me? Etc.

TO THE TEACHER. In writing the stage directions for a scene, pupils may make use of descriptions given in a story. They may also draw upon other stories or upon their imaginations for details (of dress or furniture), which are not suggested in the story, but which are suited to the spirit of the story.

The dialogue may be suggested (1) by conversations reported in the story; (2) by situations which readily suggest dialogue; (3) by character descriptions and comments of the author.

The dialogue must be closely articulated. In order to do this well, pupils must be trained to give proper cues and to take cues for new speeches. Each speech should end with a sentence which will fit into the opening sentence of the speech to follow. The new speech must take into account the cue given. It must first make reply to the speech preceding and then move on to a new point.

Directions for acting are inclosed in parentheses and are placed before the sentences which are to be emphasized, or accompanied by gestures, facial expressions, or other forms of acting.

180. Oral Dramatization

TO THE TEACHER. The most valuable, and often the most successful, dramatization is that which may be invented on the floor of the classroom, without written preparation. Dramatic dialogue, suggested by reported conversation, by character description, or by exciting situations in literature

or in history may be given with great interest and spontaneity by pupils who are familiar with the selections to be used for that purpose.

In work of this sort, pupils may be trained to make speeches which will call for replies, and also to seize upon every cue that is given for a new speech.

List of Selections for Oral Dramatization

TO THE TEACHER. The following selections are well suited to spontaneous dialogue. When the pupils have become familiar with the thought and spirit of each, they may readily invent the dialogue as they stand before the class.

Scenes from *The Last of the Mohicans*.

Yussouf. James Russell Lowell.

Quarrel between Marmion and Douglas. From Scott's "Marmion." Canto VI.

Gradgrind's School. From Dickens's "Hard Times," chapter 21.

The High Court of Inquiry. From J. G. Holland's "Arthur Bonnicastle." To be found in most school fifth readers.

Squeer's Boarding School. From Dickens's "Nicholas Nickleby," chapter 8.

Abou Ben-Adhem. Leigh Hunt.

Dramatization of Local Situations

TO THE TEACHER. The following imaginary situations may be supplemented by real local situations or by historic events which are of interest to pupils of particular schools.

1. A tree of historic interest in your community has been ordered by the town council to be cut down. (Invent

dialogue between the members of the council on the one hand and three or four citizens on the other.)

2. Two brothers fight on opposite sides in the Civil War. One unknowingly wounds the other in battle. (Invent a dialogue between the two brothers.)

3. A boy saves from fire his baby brother left in his care. (Invent a story in dialogue between the boy and his parents on their return.)

181. Making Little Books

Have you ever tried to make a little book which you could call your own? On the following pages are six pictures which show the different ways in which men of different ages and different countries have left records of their thoughts and feelings. That is just the purpose of any book—to leave a record of some one's thoughts about something. The series of pictures, called *The Evolution of the Book*, was painted by John W. Alexander, an American painter, on the walls of the great Congressional Library at Washington. Each picture shows a step in the making of books. The simplest and crudest way is shown in the first picture called *The Cairn*. The highest step is shown in the last picture of the series—*The Printing Press*.

Each picture suggests a little story of its own. Let each of you write the six stories which the six pictures and the six outlines suggest. When you have finished the separate stories, you may put them together into a little book of your own. The directions for the making of your book you will find on page 346.



This picture represents a company of primitive men, clad in skins, building a cairn on a sea-shore.

THE CAIRN

A conical heap of stones of various sizes.

A. When and by whom built.

B. Different purposes for which it was built.

1. As a monument or tomb. It contained urns, chests, and bones.
2. As a record of some great event.
 - a. A military victory.
 - b. The funeral of some distinguished person.
 - c. The inauguration of a chieftain.
 - d. A notable meeting of clans.
3. As a record to let others know the stages of their journey.

C. How the building of a cairn was a step toward the making of the book. Why it was the simplest, crudest step.

D. How it would lead to other forms of recording the deeds of peoples.



This picture represents an Arabian story-teller and his audience.

ORAL TRADITION

A handing down of knowledge from one generation to another, by means of oral speech.

A. Practiced by whom.

1. By primitive men of all races.
2. By the Greeks who related stories from Homer, in the time of Homer and on up through the time of Lycurgus.
3. By Mahomet and his successors, who taught, by oral speech, the sayings of Mahomet not found in the *Koran*, and the customs of Mahomet not found in the *Koran*.
4. By Arabian, by Persian, by Indian, and by other Oriental story-tellers, who related marvelous tales of magic and adventure.

B. The sense in which *Oral Tradition* is a step in the making of a book.

C. How oral tradition was the next step.



This picture shows a scaffolding placed in front of the portal of a newly erected Egyptian temple. A young Egyptian workman is cutting a hieroglyphic inscription over the door, while an Egyptian girl sits beside him, watching the work.

EGYPTIAN HIEROGLYPHICS

Pictures of objects used in place of letters or signs — “long rows of clever little pictures of everything in heaven and earth compose the sentences. Every sign is a plaything; every group a pretty puzzle. Almost every phrase, well understood, adds something to the knowledge of the world.”

A. Practiced by whom — practiced when.

B. Written on what material.

1. Papyrus — (what was papyrus?).

2. Tablets of stone.

3. Inner walls of temples and tombs.

C. Famous monuments bearing hieroglyphics. Pyramids of Egypt.

D. How Egyptian Hieroglyphics mark a step higher than Oral Tradition, in the making of the book — (the first *written* record).



This picture represents a young American Indian with a rudely shaped bowl of paint beside him, picturing some favorite story of his tribe upon a dressed and smooth deer-skin. An Indian girl lies near him, watching attentively the development of the story.

PICTURE WRITING

A record kept by means of pictures.

A. Practiced when and by whom.

1. Mexicans in very early times.
2. North American Indians.

B. How it differed from Egyptian hieroglyphics — the hieroglyphic stood for a single idea or object — the pictograph or picture writing stood for a whole story.

C. Material used.

1. Bark of trees. 2. Dressed skins of wild animals.
3. Blocks of wood. 4. Beads of many colors.
5. Trunks of trees from which the bark had been peeled.

D. Some interesting events in the life of the Indians.

1. Records of battles. 2. Stories of the chase.
3. Stories of vengeance. 4. Stories of love and friendship. 5. Stories of religion.

E. In what sense picture writing was book-making.



This picture shows the interior of a monastery cell, with a monk seated in the feeble light of a small window, laboriously illuminating in bright colors the pages of a great folio book.

THE MANUSCRIPT BOOK

The beautiful hand-illuminated books made in the ancient and middle ages, by the scribes or copyists.

A. The purposes of the books.

1. To preserve the literature of the time.
2. To spread a knowledge of the Bible.
3. To preserve the prayers and daily devotions which belong to the rites of the Church.

B. The materials used.

1. Vellum, or very fine parchment, made of the dressed skins of sheep, goats, or calves.
2. Black ink for forming the glossy black letters; then red and blue pigments and gold leaf.
3. The reed or pen used in printing the text.
4. The hair-brush used for laying on the color.
5. An agate, or "a dog's tooth set in a stick" for burnishing the gold leaf.

C. Time and labor employed in the making of a book.

D. How the Manuscript Book was a much higher step.



This picture represents Gutenberg, the inventor of printing, in his shop. The master, with his assistant beside him, is examining a proof-sheet, and discussing the principle of his invention. To the right is an apprentice, pulling upon the handle-bar of the rude press.

THE PRINTING PRESS

A machine for making printed impressions on paper from type or plates.

A. A method of mechanical printing which preceded the invention of the printing press — the Chinese Printing Blocks. (Explain how they were made.)

B. The invention of the printing press.

1. By whom and when it was invented.
2. How it differed from the Chinese method.

C. Why it was the *highest* step in the making of a book.

TO THE TEACHER: The foregoing outlines are only suggestive. The material for fuller work may be found in The American Cyclopaedia, in The Encyclopaedia Britannica, in Schoolcraft's and Putnam's histories of Indian life, and in any good book on Arts and Crafts, etc.

182. Directions for Making a Little Book

1. Copy neatly on unruled linen paper, $7\frac{1}{2}$ " by 10", the six stories which you have written on the making of a book.

2. Place the title — *The Evolution of the Book* — $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches from the top of page 1.

3. Leave on each page the following margins — top and bottom 1"; left hand margin, $1\frac{1}{4}$ "; right hand margin, 1"

4. Let each composition form a little chapter in your book. Begin each new chapter on a new page. Write above the title of each chapter, the word *Chapter* together with the number of the chapter; as,

CHAPTER I

THE BUILDING OF THE CAIRN

5. Indent each new paragraph $\frac{1}{2}$ " deeper than the left hand margin.

6. Number each page in the middle of the blank line below the last written line.

7. Before putting the parts of the book together, make provision for the following:

- a. Two pages at the beginning, left blank.
- b. The sub-title page to follow. To contain only the title written a little above the middle line of the page. (See any well-made book.)
- c. The full title page to follow the sub-title page.
- d. The page of dedication to follow full title page.
- e. The *Table of Contents* to follow the page of dedication.

NOTE. The sub-title, full title, dedication, and *Table of Contents* pages are always right hand pages.

8. Place the sheets between the folded covers of gray, brown, green, or blue art paper or leather, cut a quarter of an inch larger all round than the sheets of paper.

9. Punch six holes at equal distances apart, one fourth inch from the left hand edge of the book and five eighths of an inch from the top and bottom margins.

10. Lace leaves and cover together with cord, dyed to match the cover.

APPENDIX

PUNCTUATION

You have already studied in Book I some of the uses of the punctuation marks shown in the following table.

(.) Period	(?) Question mark	(!) Exclamation point
(,) Comma	(-) Hyphen	(" ") Quotation marks
	(') Apostrophe	

EXERCISE

Copy the marks above, and write opposite each mark the name which belongs to it.

1. Additional Uses of the Comma (,)

You should now memorize and put into practice the following new rules for the uses of the comma.

1. The comma is generally used to set off long groups of words which precede the parts they modify; as,

When Brynhyld awoke from the magic spell of Loki, she saw Siegfried bending over her.

2. The comma is used to separate from the rest of the sentence words or groups of words used parenthetically or appositively; as,

(Parenthetical)

Then, to my great relief, I awoke to find it all a dream.

(Appositive)

Joan of Arc, the sainted martyr of France, was a simple peasant girl living in the little village of Domrémy.

3. The comma is used to separate from each other the words, phrases, or clauses of a series not connected by conjunctions; as,

They (the rats) killed the cats, fought the dogs, nibbled the babies, and built their nests in the men's Sunday hats.

Each knight at Arthur's Court took a solemn vow to keep pure, to defend the weak, and to right the wrong.

The ancients were ignorant of these great facts — that the earth is round, that it turns on its axis, and that it moves around the sun.

NOTE. When a co-ordinating connective is used between the last two members of a series, the comma should precede the connective; as,

Apples, pears, and plums.

Donald, Irene, or Harry.

Note the commas before the connectives in the sentences illustrating rule 3.

4. The comma is generally placed before the conjunctions *and*, *but*, *for*, *or*, or *nor*, when these conjunctions are used to connect the independent clauses of a compound sentence; as,

He would not admit his guilt, nor would he deny it.

And now I go away, but I shall come again.

5. The comma is used to set off words or groups of words removed from the parts which they modify; as,

They have waited long and anxiously, hoping to hear some tidings of the lost ones. (*Hoping* modifies *they*.)

There was not a single member of the track team, who did not express regret at the rash conduct of the captain. (The *who* clause modifies *member*.)

EXERCISE

I. *Quote the comma rule which has been observed in each of the following sentences:*

1. My morning duties are to carry wood, to bring in water, and to take the cows to pasture.

2. There, in the time of the Puritans, resided an aged hermit, who had been exiled from England.

3. The ship finally sank, and many of the passengers went down with her.

4. "Come," he said, "we must continue our journey by moonlight."

5. Cæsar pursued the enemy in hot haste, hoping to overtake them before they reached the bridge.

II. *Supply the necessary commas in the following sentences:*

1. Donald stood at the gate a long time waiting for the messenger to arrive.

2. The hound caught the scent after a long delay and soon it led us over the hill to the next meadow.

3. When the last smoldering embers of the watchfire had died away we heard the bugle call to arms.

4. To-morrow at the ringing of the curfew Basil Underwood must die.

5. At last Evangeline who had wandered many years in search of Gabriel found him dying in a hospital.

6. Our house which is in Delaware Street is built in the old English style.

7. The Indian whom we saw peering at us from behind the bushes proved to be a treacherous Huron.

8. The vase which you see in the window is more expensive than the one on the table.

9. The moon which now rises at a late hour will soon be on the wane.

10. The moon which belongs to our world is much smaller than the moons of other planetary systems.

2. The Semicolon (;)

The semicolon is used to show a wider separation between ideas than is shown by the comma, and a closer connection than is shown by the period.

You should memorize and put into practice the following rules for the uses of the semicolon:

1. The semicolon is used between two statements not joined by a connective; as,

(and)

The rains descended; the winds blew, and the floods came.

(but)

One was tall; the other was short.

(for)

He shook as one smitten with the ague; he knew that his guilt had been discovered.

2. When one or more of the statements of a compound sentence are interpunctuated by commas, the semicolon is used before the conjunction joining the statements; as,

Now the little sister cried again, and would not be pacified; and when I looked up and caught John's blank, dismayed look, I began to feel like crying, too. (Note that each member of the compound sentence is broken by commas.)

3. The semicolon is used between the statements of a compound sentence when the members are joined by any of the following connectives: *also, moreover, likewise, besides, nevertheless, however, yet, notwithstanding, still, hence, therefore, consequently*.

NOTE. The semicolon is often used, in the compound sentence, before the connectives *but* and *for*, even though the separate statements contain no commas. This use is especially observed when the second statement is in sharp contrast to the first, or when the second statement explains the first; as,

His manner was rude and boisterous; but his heart was kind and gentle.

The driver cracked his whip loudly; for he was anxious to start.

EXERCISE

I. *Explain the use of each semicolon in the following compound sentences:*

1. Children were screaming; women were crying and wringing their hands, and men were pale with anxiety.

2. They first tried to bribe him; then they tried to intimidate him.

3. You must yield to our demands; otherwise we shall move against the fort at once.

4. We were not invited to join the club; if we had been, we should have refused the invitation.

II. Copy the following sentences, inserting semicolons wherever they belong. Quote the rule which you have applied to each sentence.

1. They shot the blackbirds because they pecked the fruit they poisoned the crickets for eating the crumbs in the kitchen and they smothered the cicadas, which used to sing all summer in the lime trees.

2. Books were flung aside inkstands were overturned benches were turned down and school was dismissed an hour earlier than usual.

3. One was just and brave the other was tyrannical and cowardly.

4. He was the homeliest man in the regiment yet he was the best loved.

5. The ship was badly disabled hence we were forced to put into harbor at once.

6. We made ample provisions for the following day's journey then we crept under a sheltering rock for the night, and were soon asleep.

3. The Colon (:)

The colon is used at the close of statements containing the words *thus*, *this*, *these*, or *as follows*, used to introduce a direct quotation or an enumeration of persons or things; as,

Marmion made this reply: "And this to me! and 'twere not for thy hoary beard," etc.

NOTE. A statement introducing a long formal speech of a paragraph or more is followed by a colon and a short dash; as,

Mark Antony made this eloquent speech over the dead body of Cæsar: —

“Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears,” etc.

4. Quotation Marks (“ ”)

Quotation marks are used

1. To inclose a direct quotation.

2. To inclose each part of a divided quotation.

Single quotation marks are used to inclose a quotation within a quotation; as,

He answered, “Why only this morning you said, ‘I shall never give up’; and now you say that you cannot go on.”

5. Indirect Quotation

A quotation which does not give the exact words of the person quoted is called an indirect quotation.

- | | | |
|---|---|--|
| 1 | { | <i>Indirect</i> |
| | | Hal said that he should be glad to come. |
| | { | <i>Direct</i> |
| | | Hal's exact words were, “I shall be glad to come.” |
| 2 | { | <i>Indirect</i> |
| | | The king said that Marmion must go to the Douglas castle. |
| | { | <i>Direct</i> |
| | | The king's exact words were, “Marmion, you must go to the Douglas castle.” |

An indirect quotation is always preceded by the subordinating conjunction *that*, either expressed or understood.

An indirect quotation is never inclosed in quotation marks nor set off by the comma.

EXERCISE

Tell which of the following sentences contain direct quotations and which contain indirect quotations. Change each direct quotation to an indirect quotation, and explain the difference in punctuation.

1. John replied that he must be going.
2. Will retorted, "If I were you, I should be ashamed."
3. "How many times have you tried, Tom?" asked the teacher.
4. Frank asked that he might be excused from recitation.
5. The king declared that he would receive no messenger from the court of Henry.

6. Other Marks of Punctuation

The dash (—) is used

1. To denote a sudden break in thought; as,
You said—but what is the use of recalling what you said?
2. To denote uncontrolled feeling; as,
"I—I—didn't—didn't intend to—to hurt your feelings," she sobbed hysterically.
3. Before and after explanatory groups less closely connected with the rest of the sentence than the commas would show; as,

The storm — snow mingled with wind and rain — beat against our faces.

4. Before a word used unexpectedly, for the sake of surprise, at the end of a sentence; as,

Quaking with fear, I opened the door, and there stood — only Fido, my pet dog.

Parentheses () are used

To inclose explanatory words or groups of words having little or no grammatical or thought connection with the rest of the sentence.

This situation (I shall not discuss it fully just now) is deplored by all who know the facts.

Brackets [] are used

To inclose words or groups of words inserted in sentences by persons other than the authors; as,

They [the Saracens], after a siege of three years, finally surrendered to the valiant King Richard.

The hyphen (-) is used

1. Between the parts of a compound word; as, *father-in-law*, *hangers-on*, *thirty-six*, *lion-hearted*.

2. After a syllable at the end of a line, when a word is divided at that point.

The apostrophe (') is used

1. To form the possessive case of nouns.

2. To form the plurals of letters and figures; as, *6's and 7's*; *a, b, c's*.

3. To show the omission of letters or figures; as, *I'll* (I will); *o'clock* (of clock); *May 4, '12* (1912).

7. Rules for the Uses of Capital Letters

A capital letter should be used at the beginning of

1. The first word of every sentence; as,

To the victor belong the spoils.

2. Each line of poetry; as,

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day;
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea.

3. Proper names and proper adjectives; as, *Buffalo*, *N. Y.*; *Roman*.

4. Each important word in the title of a book or of a composition; as,

The Fall of the House of Usher.
An Exciting Experience in a Belfry Tower.

5. All names referring to the Deity; as,
God; Almighty Father; Lord.

6. Titles of honor or of address; as,
The Prince of Wales; Count Pulaski; Cousin Robert; Aunt Helen.

7. A direct quotation; as,

Jessie replied, "No, no, I shall not listen to you."

8. Names of directions, when used to denote particular localities; as,

We had just returned from the South.

9. Names of the days of the week and of the months of the year; as, *Monday; November.*

10. The interjection *O* and the pronoun *I*; as,

But *O* how glad I shall be.

You must know how sorry *I* am.

8. A List of Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are frequently used in written and printed composition.

B.C.	Before Christ	MSS.	Manuscripts
A.D.	<i>Anno Domini</i> (In the year of our Lord)	Messrs.	Messieurs
		Jr.	Junior
		Sr.	Senior
Anon.	Anonymous (Without a name)	U.S.A.	United States of America
A.M.	<i>Ante meridiem</i> (Before noon)	R.F.D.	Rural Free Delivery
P.M.	<i>Post meridiem</i> (Afternoon)	i.e.	That is
		pro tem.	For the time being
C.O.D.	Collect on delivery	vid.	See
M.D.	Doctor of medicine	viz.	Namely
M.C.	Member of Congress	ult.	Last month
M.P.	Member of Parliament	prox.	Next month
		inst.	Present month
MS.	Manuscript		

CONJUGATION OF VERBS

The conjugation of a verb is its inflection to show the changes which it undergoes in form to denote its voice, mood, tense, person, and number.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *Be*

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Present Tense

Past Tense

Past Participle

Am (or be)

Was

Been

INDICATIVE MOOD

Present Tense

Singular

Plural

1. I am
2. You are
3. He is

1. We are
2. You are
3. They are

Past Tense

1. I was
2. You were
3. He was

1. We were
2. You were
3. They were

Future Tense

1. I shall be
2. You will be
3. He will be

1. We shall be
2. You will be
3. They will be

Present Perfect Tense

Singular

1. I have been
2. You have been
3. He has been

Plural

1. We have been
2. You have been
3. They have been

Past Perfect Tense

1. I had been
2. You had been
3. He had been

1. We had been
2. You had been
3. They had been

Future Perfect Tense

1. I shall have been
2. You will have been
3. He will have been

1. We shall have been
2. You will have been
3. They will have been

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

(Usually preceded by *if*, *though*, or *lest*)

Present Tense

1. I be
2. You be
3. He be

1. We be
2. You be
3. They be

Past Tense

1. I were
2. You were
3. He were

1. We were
2. You were
3. They were

Present Perfect Tense

Singular

1. I have been
2. You have been
3. He have been

Plural

1. We have been
2. You have been
3. They have been

Past Perfect Tense

1. I had been
2. You had been
3. He had been

1. We had been
2. You had been
3. They had been

IMPERATIVE MOOD

2. Be you

2. Be you

INFINITIVES

Present, To be

Phrasal Past, To have been

PARTICIPLES

Present, Being

Past, Been

Phrasal Past, Having been

GERUNDS

Present, Being

Phrasal Past, Having been

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *LOVE*

PRINCIPAL PARTS

Present Tense
Love

Past Tense
Loved

Past Participle
Loved

INDICATIVE MOOD

ACTIVE VOICE

PASSIVE VOICE

Present Tense

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I love	We love	1. I am loved	We are loved
2. You love	You love	2. You are loved	You are loved
3. He loves	They love	3. He is loved	They are loved

Past Tense

1. I loved	We loved	1. I was loved	We were loved
2. You loved	You loved	2. You were loved	You were loved
3. He loved	They loved	3. He was loved	They were loved

Future Tense

1. I shall love	We shall love	1. I shall be loved	We shall be loved
2. You will love	You will love	2. You will be loved	You will be loved
3. He will love	They will love	3. He will be loved	They will be loved

Present Perfect Tense

1. I have loved	We have loved	1. I have been loved	We have been loved
2. You have loved	You have loved	2. You have been loved	You have been loved
3. He has loved	They have loved	3. He has been loved	They have been loved

ACTIVE VOICE

PASSIVE VOICE

Past Perfect Tense

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I had loved	We had loved	1. I had been loved	We had been loved
2. You had loved	You had loved	2. You had been loved	You had been loved
3. He had loved	They had loved	3. He had been loved	They had been loved

Future Perfect Tense

1. I shall have loved	We shall have loved	1. I shall have been loved	We shall have been loved
2. You will have loved	You will have loved	2. You will have been loved	You will have been loved
3. He will have loved	They will have loved	3. He will have been loved	They will have been loved

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

(Often preceded by *if, though, or lest*)*Present Tense*

1. I love	We love	1. I be loved	We be loved
2. You love	You love	2. You be loved	You be loved
3. He love	They love	3. He be loved	They be loved

Past Tense

1. I loved	We loved	1. I were loved	We were loved
2. You loved	You loved	2. You were loved	You were loved
3. He loved	They loved	3. He were loved	They were loved

ACTIVE VOICE**PASSIVE VOICE*****Present Perfect Tense***

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
1. I have loved	We have loved	1. I have been loved	We have been loved
2. You have loved	You have loved	2. You have been loved	You have been loved
3. He have loved	They have loved	3. He have been loved	They have been loved

Past Perfect Tense

(Same as for the Indicative)

IMPERATIVE MOOD***Present Tense (only)***

2. Love (you)	Love (you)		2. Be loved	Be loved
---------------	------------	--	-------------	----------

INFINITIVES

<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>
To love	To have loved		To be loved To have been loved

PARTICIPLES

<i>Present, Loving</i>	<i>Past, Loved</i>	<i>Past, Loved</i>
<i>Past Phrasal, Having loved (or having been loved)</i>		

A LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS

<i>Present Tense</i>	<i>Past Tense</i>	<i>Past Participle</i>
arise	arose	arisen
am	was	been
awake	awoke, awaked	awaked
bend	bent	bent
begin	began	begun
beseech	besought	besought
bid (command)	bade	bade
bid (money)	bid	bid
bite	bit	bitten
blow	blew	blown
build	built	built
burn	burned, burnt	burned, burnt
burst	burst	burst
chide	chid	chidden
choose	chose	chosen
cleave (split)	cleft, clove	cleft, cleaved
come	came	come
curse	cursed, curst	cursed, curst
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamed, dreamt	dreamed, dreamt
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
dwell	dwelt	dwelt
eat	ate	eaten
flee	fled	fled
fly	flew	flown
forget	forgot	forgotten
forsake	forsook	forsaken

Present Tense

freeze
get
gird
go
hang
heave
hew
kneel
knit
know
lay
learn
lend
lie
light
pay
rend
ride
ring
rise
run
say
see
set
shake
show
shine
shoe
shrink
smell
smite
speed

Past Tense

froze
got
girded, girt
went
hung, hanged
hove, heaved
hewed
kneeled, knelt
knit, knitted
knew
laid
learned, learnt
lent
lay
lit, lighted
paid
rent
rode
rang
rose
ran
said
saw
set
shook
showed
shone
shod
shrank
smelled, smelt
smote
sped

Past Participle

frozen
got, gotten
girded, girt
gone
hung, hanged
hove, heaved
hewn
kneeled, knelt
knit, knitted
known
laid
learned, learnt
lent
lain
lit, lighted
paid
rent
ridden
rung
risen
run
said
seen
set
shaken
shown
shone
shod
shrunk
smelled, smelt
smitten
sped

Present Tense

spin
spell
sing
sink
sit
slay
sling
slink
sow
speak
spring
steal
sting
string
strew
stride
strike

strive
swear
sweep
swim
swing
take
thrive
throw
tread
wake
weave
weep
wring
write

Past Tense

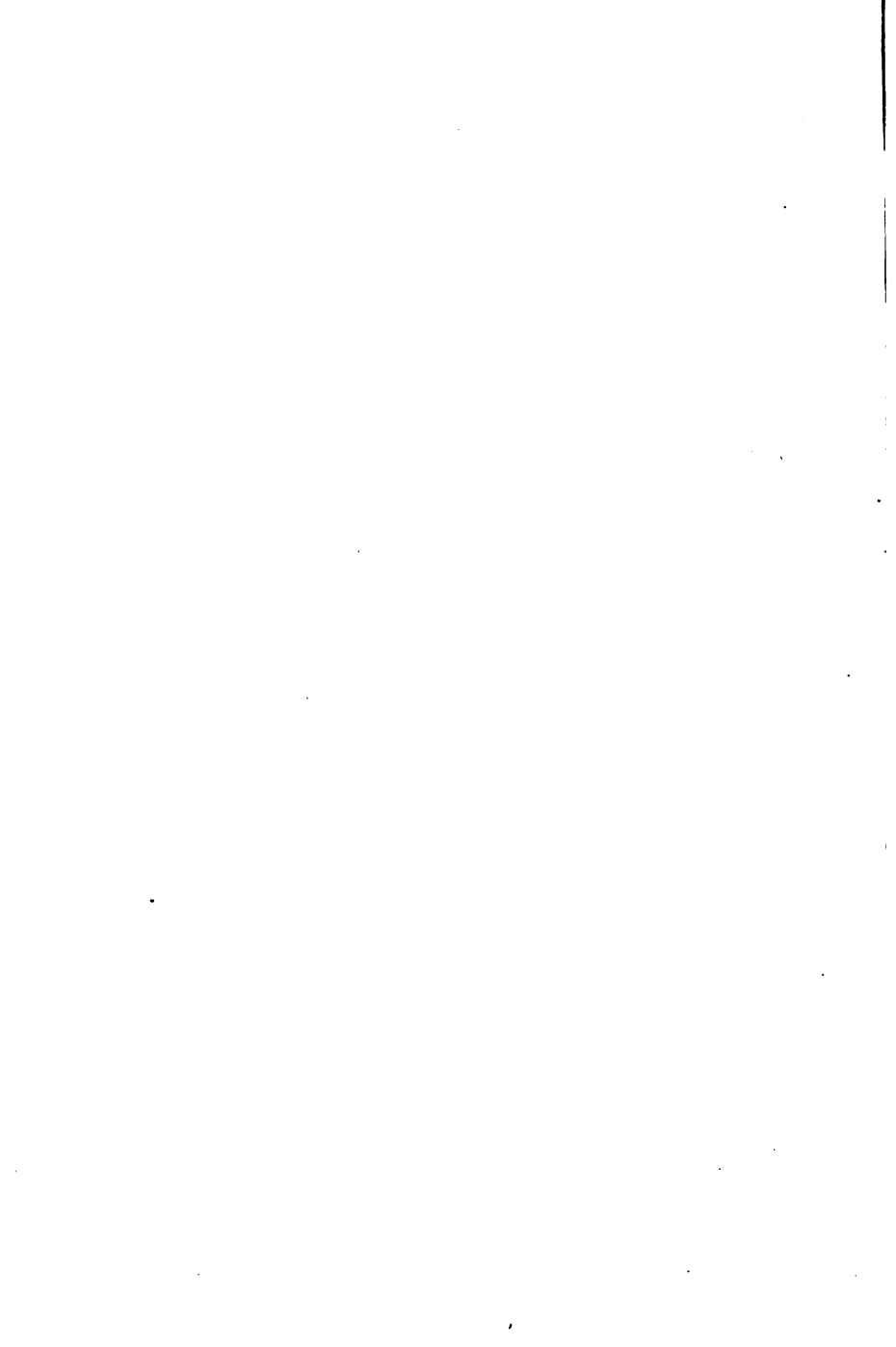
spun
spelled, spelt
sang
sank
sat
slew
slung
slunk
sowed
spoke
sprang
stole
stung
strung
strewed
strode
struck

strove
swore
swept
swam
swung
took
throve
threw
trod
woke, waked
wove
wept
wrung
wrote

Past Participle

spun
spelled, spelt
sung
sunk
sat
slain
slung
slunk
sowed, sown
spoken
sprung
stolen
stung
strung
strewn
stridden
struck, stricken
(prostrated)

striven
sworn
swept
swum
swung
taken
thriven
thrown
trodden
woke, waked
woven
wept
wrung
written



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